

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 335 323

SP 033 207

AUTHOR Palmer, Gary K., Ed.; And Others
TITLE Proceedings from the Intermountain Leisure Symposium
(11th, Provo, Utah, November 15, 1990).
INSTITUTION Brigham Young Univ., Provo, Utah.
PUB DATE 15 Nov 90
NOTE 263p.
PUB TYPE Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC11 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Adults; Desensitization; Group Dynamics; Leisure
Education; *Leisure Time; *Recreation; *Recreational
Activities; Recreational Facilities; Recreationists;
Therapeutic Recreation; Tourism
IDENTIFIERS Leisure Services

ABSTRACT

This conference proceedings report includes papers submitted by 19 presenters addressing current trends, critical issues, and emerging perspectives. Titles of the papers are as follows: (1) "Envisioning Your Own Destiny: The Case for Strategic Planning in the Park and Recreation Movement" (H. Gray, D. McLean, and E. Crook); (2) "Academic Expectations of the Resort and Commercial Recreation Association" (J. Crossley); (3) "An Extension of the Goal-Interference Model of Recreation Conflict: Exploring the Role of Social Norms" (E. Ruddell); (4) "Outdoor Recreation Conflict and Social Norms: An Examination of Intergroup and Intra-Group Conflict" (W. Hendricks and E. Ruddell); (5) "Attitudes about Honesty and Ethics among Selected Leisure Service Professionals in the State of Utah" (M. Widmer and H. Smith); (6) "Meta-Analysis of Leisure and Daily Experiences: An Exercise in Methodology" (C. Ramos, W. Hendricks, R. Ramthun, C. Morris, and R. Jones); (7) "A Profile of Municipal Park and Recreation Directors in Large Western Cities--Do Good Ol' Boys Really Run the Show?" (D. M. Turco); (8) "In-Center Hemodialysis Clients and the Facilitation of Leisure Independence" (P. S. Miko); (9) "A Projection of Range Protocol for Measuring Economic Influence" (C. W. Kelsey); (10) "Guidelines for Activities Planning for Persons with Alzheimer's Disease" (M. Novotny); (11) "Commitment and Recreational Sports Participation" (K. L. Siegenthaler); (12) "The Mental, Social and Emotional Benefits of Computers in a Recreation Program for Senior Citizens" (L. C. Peniston); (13) "Recreational Boating Management" (R. Horton); (14) "Developing Formal Writing Skills in Recreation Professionals" (J. T. Dixon); (15) "Stages of Group Development" (L. L. Vreeken); (16) "Monopolizing the Great Siberian Railroad" (D. L. Dustin); (17) "What Is Tourism and Who Are the Tourists?" (G. A. Rasmussen and R. D. Paulsen); (19) "Patterns of Social Recreation and Play in a Pietistic Community--Nauvoo, Illinois 1839-45" (A. Jones); and (18) "Snakes Heal People--An Application of Systematic Desensitization" (R. B. Zabriskie). (LL)

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11TH ANNUAL INTERMOUNTAIN



LEISURE SYMPOSIUM

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Preface

It is our pleasure to present the proceedings from the 1990 Intermountain Leisure Symposium (ILS). Thirty-two papers were presented in the eleventh annual Symposium, addressing a broad range of current trends, critical issues, and emerging perspectives. Nineteen of the presenters have chosen to submit papers for inclusion in this document.

Sponsorship of the ILS is shared by the Brigham Young University, University of Utah, Utah State University, the Utah Recreation and Park Association, and the Utah Therapeutic Recreation Association. The 1990 Symposium was hosted by the Brigham Young University under the co-directorship of Dr. Gary K. Palmer and Doug Nelson. Many contributions to the Symposium have been made by our research staff: LuDene Moon, Heather Carnahan, Barbara Grant, and Paul Cramer, to which we express many thanks. We are also appreciative of the contributions made by many others.



Co-Editor: Dr. Gary K. Palmer



Co-Editor: Doug Nelson



Co-Editor: Paul Cramer

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11th ANNUAL INTERMOUNTAIN LEISURE SYMPOSIUM SCHEDULE

November 15, 1990 - BYU CONFERENCE CENTER

7:45-8:30--Registration and Continental Breakfast

Rooms/ Times	2265	2267	2269	2277	2279	2287	2295
8:30 to 9:20	Watercraft Management Ron Horton Pleasant View Utah	Leisure Learning Systems David M. Compton University of Utah, College of Health	What is Tourism and Who Are The Tourists? Gaylan Rasmussen Richard Paulsen Michigan St. University	Electronic Recreation Opportunity Garth Heaton Ashley Natl. Forest	Use of Volunteers Ms. Fran Lundahl Craig Balls Logan, Utah	Leisure Programs Effect on Prison Inmates Burton Olsen BYU Utah Prison	Snakes Heal People Ramon B. Zabriskie Heritage School S.H. Smith BYU
9:30 to 10:20	GENERAL SESSION - AUDITORIUM Keynote Speaker: Daniel D. McLean, Ph.D. University of Indiana						
10:30 to 11:20	Measuring the Economic Impact on Parks & Rec. Events Craig Kelsey New Mexico	Sample Design & Analysis of Responses of Skier Survey Boyd J. Fjeldsted U. of Utah Bob Bailey Ski Utah Inc.	Recent Natl. Park Service Innovations David Morris Canyonlands National Park	Enhancing Rec. Education through Associated Fields Dennis Nelson, Bill Jackson Richard Driesbeke Kevin Bybee Utah State Univ.	Seasonal Aquatic Employees Shawn Weber Logan, Utah	Off Highway Vehicle Issues Lawrence Mullins State Parks	TR Interventions with spinal cord injury patients Trish Jensen John Blake Western Rehabilitation

11:30

to

LUNCHEON, ENTERTAINMENT, AND AWARDS

ROOMS:

1:20

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Rooms/ Times	2265	2267	2269	2277	2279	2287	2295
1:30 to 2:20	Symposium of Research Section Papers	Soliciting sponsorship for Recreation Programs Tony Onofrietti Clinton, Ut	American Discovery Trails Reed Stalder Bureau of Land Management	A Positive Approach to Employee Evaluations Hal Potter Utah State University	Army Youth Services Ronald J. Nicholson Dugway, Utah	URPA BOARD MEETING	Different Treatment Intervention In Therapeutic Recreation
2:30 to 3:20	Please see Attachments	Creating Your Own Destiny Howard R. Gray Daniel McLean Emery Cook BYU/Indiana/ SLC P&R	Utah Byways and Backways Brent McBeth Ann King Provo, Utah	Patterns of Social Recreation & Play Art Jones Utah State University	Rec. Grad. Placement: Fact or Fiction Burton Olsen Tom Hansen BYU	Experiential Therapy Task Course Carl Jensen Charter Cyn. Hospital	Debbie Geddes, BYU Ellen Gooch, Provo Canyon School

**Intermountain Leisure Resources Symposium
Research Section Papers**

1:00 - 3:00

**ACADEMIC EXPECTATIONS OF
THE RESORT AND COMMERCIAL
RECREATION ASSOCIATION**

Dr. John Crossley

**AN EXTENSION OF THE GOAL-
INTERFERENCE MODEL OF
RECREATION CONFLICT:
EXPLORING THE ROLE OF
SOCIAL NORMS**

Dr. Edward Ruddell

**OUTDOOR RECREATION CONFLICT
AND SOCIAL NORMS: AN
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**ATTITUDES ABOUT HONESTY AND
AND ETHICS AMONG SELECTED
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IN THE STATE OF UTAH**

**Mr. Mark Widmer
Dr. Harold Smith**

**META-ANALYSIS OF LEISURE AND
AND DAILY EXPERIENCES: AN
EXERCISE IN METHODOLOGY**

**Mr. Carlos Ramos
Mr. William Hendricks
Mr. Roy Ramthun
Ms. Cathy Morris
Mr. Robert Jones**

ENVISIONING YOUR OWN DESTINY:

The Case for Strategic Planning in the Park and Recreation Movement

Dr. Howard R. Gray, Brigham Young University

Dr. Daniel McLean, Indiana University

Emery Crook, Salt Lake County Parks and Recreation

Applied strategic planning is the process by which the guiding members of an organization envision its future and develop the procedures and operations necessary to achieve that future.

It is an envisioning process. It fosters the belief that we can influence aspects of the future and change it by the actions we take now. It is based upon two basic principles:

1. Strategic Planning can help the organization deal with the inevitability of social change.
2. Strategic Planning enables an organization to shape its own future, rather than merely prepare for the future.

The applied strategic planning model provides a whole process for the guiding members of an organization to clarify values, establish priorities, implement action strategies and evaluate the effect of these strategies within the market place. It encompasses and recognizes the need for contingency plans (What If's?) as well as consideration of environmental and social influences in the market.

Finally, the organization needs to translate the ACTION PLAN into the most effective strategies possible. A strategy is a specific planning tool that can be used to accomplish the ACTION PRIORITIES that have been identified. Strategies would be reviewed each working day and reflect the ever changing environment in which the organization operates. They would include issues relating to the (5) **CAPABILITY TO IMPLEMENT** the applied strategic plan, the identification of (6) **MISSING PRIORITIES**, the (7) **EMERGENCY PLANS**, ways of (8) **PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER**, and integrated ways of (9) **IMPLEMENTING** the action priorities. These nine elements will be reviewed during the workshop and represent the essential elements of the strategic planning process. These are explained in detail in the strategic planning workshop materials (Gray and McLean, 1990).

Utilizing the Applied Strategic Planning Model

1.0 Planning to Plan. Orient the agency organizational members toward the ASP Model and its nine components. It identifies an agency planning team, establishes support for their effort within the agency system, provides for training the ASP team and begins the environmental scanning phase.

2.0 Values and Vision. This is the first formal step in the Applied Planning System. Values held by the organization directly impact what can or cannot be implemented or accomplished by the services delivery components of that agency. Values may be examined from the perspective(s) of individuals, organizations, operations, culture or stakeholder analysis from agency-product consumers.

A standardized model (with 9 key components) is necessary to develop strategic plans for each program area within an organization. These strategic plans become a catalyst in developing a single strategic plan for the entire organization. The strategic plans of various program areas serve as communication tools to avoid undesirable duplication, promote cooperative projects, identify successes, improve weaknesses, allocate resources, stay on target, and realize organizational alignment.

Alignment or organizational commitment to a common mission, priorities, and goals is an important by-product of the strategic planning process. Without formalized planning, alignment can never occur. Each program area provides its point of view (autonomy) of the organizational mission statement. Program area alignment promotes commitment to the overall values and mission of the organization. It provides a strategy for all areas to work as a whole.

The strategic planning model includes nine interactive components. The beginning components focuses on: **(1) PLANNING TO PLAN** or reviewing the **(2) VALUES & VISION** and **(3) MISSION STATEMENT FORMULATION** that were prepared last year and need to be reviewed and adopted. These three elements provide the basis for the strategic planning process.

Next, the organization needs to identify the major components or areas of focus that it will pursue in the near future. These components need to be organized into **ACTION PRIORITIES** and formulate an **(4) ACTION PLAN**.

3.0 Mission Statement Formulation. The organization's mission consists of a clear, concise statement that clarifies the purpose(s) or function(s) that the agency is attempting to fulfill within society: What do we do? For Whom? How do we do it? This component focuses on ownership and consensus regarding the "What do we do? statement(s).

4.0 Action Plan. The process by which the organization defines success in the context of what it is doing (areas of focus), how success is measured (action priority statements) and what will be done (strategies) within the guidelines established by the mission statement and the established organizational values. The relationship between action priority statements and strategies is critical. The action plan is viewed from the perspective of five to seven areas of focus that are (1) consistent with the values & mission of the agency; (2) conceptualized as desired outcomes within the near future of the agency- the agency studies its past, perceives its present, anticipates its future, and then responsibly develops its preferred future scenario, rather than subjecting its future to random chance or unseen external forces; and (3) focused upon creative or free-flowing generation of ideas and action alternatives for agency consideration.

5. Capability to Implement. This component is a performance audit. It establishes a clear view of the organization's recent performance indicators and future performance capabilities based upon the agency resources.

6. GAP Analysis. It identifies of missing priorities. It compares the projected Action Plan components with the Capability to Implement components. The important question is "Have we overlooked some important area or have we provided insufficient resources to some area(s)? or "Do we have the capability (agency resources) to effectively implement our projections?" A gap analysis

activity was created for your reference and included in these strategic planning materials (Gray, 1990). The ASP plan would need to be re-worked if discrepancies or gaps are identified between the Action Plan phase and the Capability to Implement phase.

7. Emergency Plans. The emergency plans are based upon identifying contingencies for "what ifs" or significant factors which can arise and disrupt the Action Plan sequences. A variety of "what if" scenarios with appropriate options and strategies need to be created. Constant monitoring helps to identify key "what if" indicators.

8. Putting It All Together. Finalization of the Applied Strategic Plan occurs when congruence is found between the projected Action Plan phase and the agency's perceived ability to achieve these Action Plan components. Such a completed plan includes budgeted components and timetables for executing each component. The plan is typically completed in advance of budget decisions and is viewed as a valuable tool in budgeting agency resources.

9. Implementation. The acid test for the strategic plan process is the degree by which the guiding members of an organization envision its future and develop the procedures and operations necessary to achieve that future. It is based upon two basic principles:

1. Strategic Planning can help the organization deal with the inevitability of social change.
2. Strategic Planning enables an organization to shape its own future, rather than merely prepare for the future.

NOTE: Enclosed Strategic Planning Materials: (1) The Gap Analysis material was created by Dr. Howard Gray at Brigham Young University and (2) The ASP Workshop materials were created by Dr. Daniel McLean at Indiana University.

CONSULTANT DRAFT: Community Parks and Recreation Department

VALUES

A high quality, balanced life for people- park and recreation opportunities promote happiness, fulfillment, self satisfaction and personal growth.
An adequate quantity of quality leisure opportunities for people of all ages, interests and abilities.
Provide adequate green space for leisure activities and aesthetics.
Provide adequate facilities for active recreation.
Maintain the natural environment-enhance, preserve and conserve.

MISSION

The mission of the Parks and Recreation Department is to enhance the quality of life for community residents by developing and operating parks and recreation facilities which provide healthy, safe leisure and personal enrichment opportunities for people of all ages, interests and abilities.

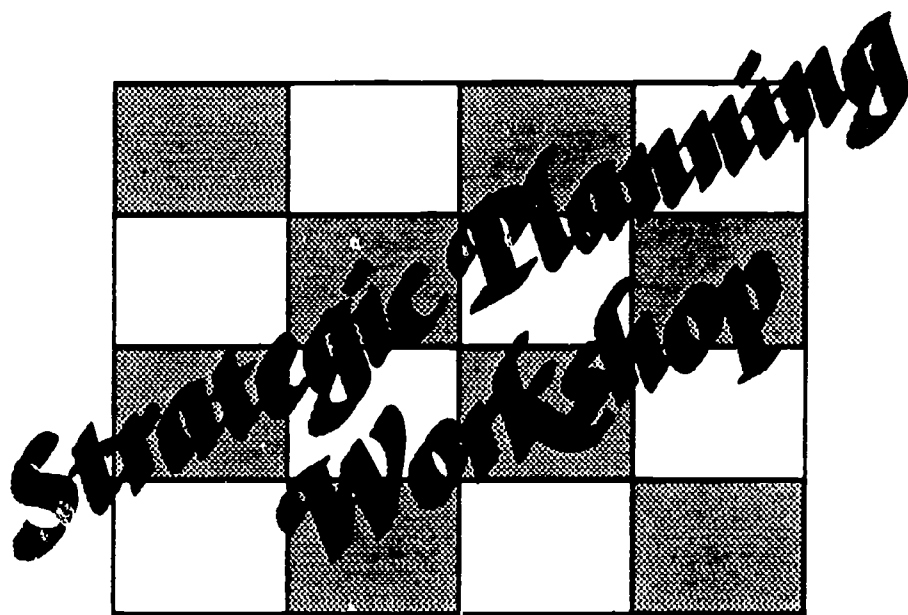
AREAS OF FOCUS

Understand and be continually aware of the current leisure time needs of community residents through forward-looking research and planning that strives to meet these needs.
Educate community residents more fully about the value and importance of parks and recreation in their personal lives as well as community life.
Inform residents of existing opportunities provided within the community for parks and recreation as well as the great potential for developing new parks and recreation opportunities within the community.
Provide a generous variety of healthy, safe and quality park facilities, and recreation opportunities for passive and active involvement.
Create rewarding and challenging leisure opportunities for people of all ages, interests and abilities through organized recreation programming.
Coordinate and facilitate recreation delivery services in both the unincorporated and incorporated areas of the community by working with other public and private agencies (groups) in providing efficient use of community resources (areas and facilities) and avoid unnecessary duplication in programs, facilities and parks.
Enhance the natural environment in all park and recreation development operations by seeking to conserve and preserve natural systems and landscapes.
Aggressively pursue land acquisition strategies to provide for current and future park and recreation space requirements of the community.
Identify and implement alternative funding mechanisms to acquire additional park land for the development and maintenance of appropriate park and recreation opportunities within the community.

Howard R. Gray
Brigham Young University
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NOTES

ASP Presentation



Department of Recreation and Park Administration

Indiana University

Slide 1

Session Objectives

Understand the Strategic Planning Process

Be able to initiate the process

Develop values, vision and mission statements

Awareness of issues related to planning and
implementation

Session Objectives

Understand the Strategic Planning Process

Be able to initiate the process

Develop values, vision and mission statements

Awareness of issues related to planning and implementation

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Slide 1

NOTES

ASP Presentation

- Today my intent is to:
 - 1) Define Applied Strategic Planning
 - 2) Share an overview of the process
 - 3) Understand how to implement the process in your agency
 - 4) Develop a values and vision statement and understand the process for a mission statement
 - 5) Be aware of the concerns involved in implementation , monitoring, and evaluation of an applied strategic plan
- We will begin by reviewing the planning model and then moving into some exercises applying the principles of applied strategic planning
- A caution — applied strategic planning cannot be taught in a single session as we have today. It requires considerable time and effort (6 to 9 months) — and usually some outside support — my experience has shown that a facilitator to the process is quite helpful moving the process along

“Would you tell me please, which way I ought to walk from here?” asked Alice

“That depends a good deal on where you want to get to,” said the Cheshire Cat,

“I don’t much care where,” said Alice.

“Then it doesn’t matter which way you go,” said the Cat.

Lewis Carol
Alice in Wonderland

NOTES

ASP Presentation

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Lewis Carroll
Alice in Wonderland

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Slide 1

Alice may have provided us with some key insights ...

Planning allows us to ...

- be able to arrive at a desired destination
- establish clear goals and directions of purpose

Indicators of Strategic Planning Need

- **Clear Vision or set of priorities to guide**
- **Often caught off guard**
- **Feel overwhelmed by rapidity of change**
- **Policy body's role perceived as vague or weak**
- **Policy body-administration relationship frayed**
- **Senior managers spend little time dealing with strategic issues**
- **Budget process is routine with little opportunity for creative policy making**

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- > Budget process is routine with little opportunity for creative policy making

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Slide 4

NOTES

ASP Presentation

Strategic Planning Defined

“Applied Strategic Planning is the process by which the guiding members of an organization envision its future and develop the processes and operations necessary to achieve that future.”

Strategic Planning Defined

"Applied Strategic Planning is the process by which the guiding members of an organization envision its future and develop the processes and operations necessary to achieve that future."

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Slide 1

NOTES

ASP Presentation

- Given this definition we recognize some key points in the planning process — those are
 - *guiding members* (key management, board and commission, city council members)
 - *envision* — this is the process that makes strategic planning different from all other forms of planning — it is the most important element of the applied strategic planning process
 - *develop processes and operations* — this is the third and “hands on” key point of the definition
 - › the other two parts of the definition are the *WHO* and *WHAT IF* — they are necessary precursors to the *HOW* of the process
- Even in the definition we see a natural progression occurring for the planning process

Outcomes of Strategic Planning

- **clarify direction**
- **foster effective decision making**
- **anticipate and prepare for the future**
- **promote accountability**

Outcomes of Strategic Planning

- clarify direction
- foster effective decision making
- anticipate and prepare for the future
- promote accountability

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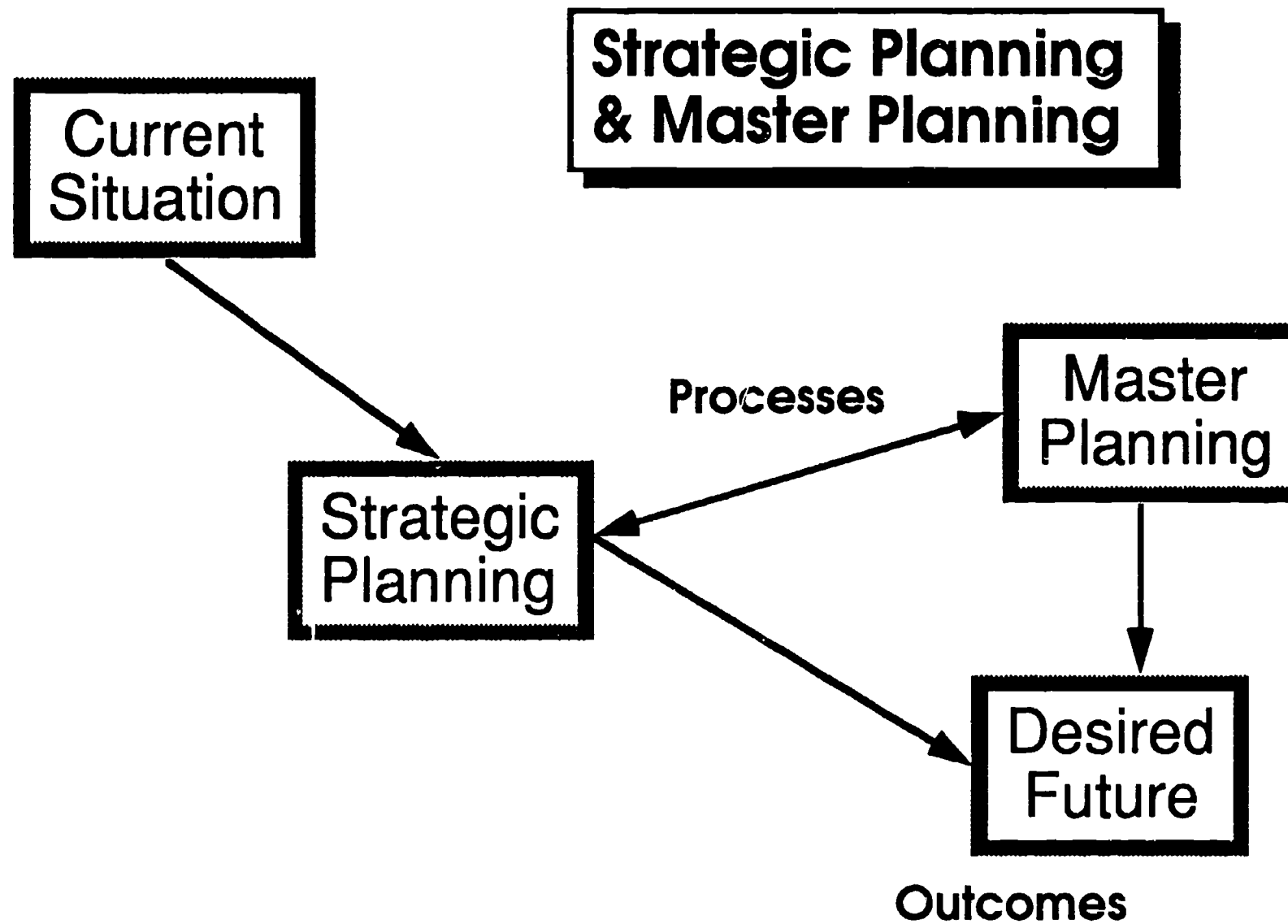
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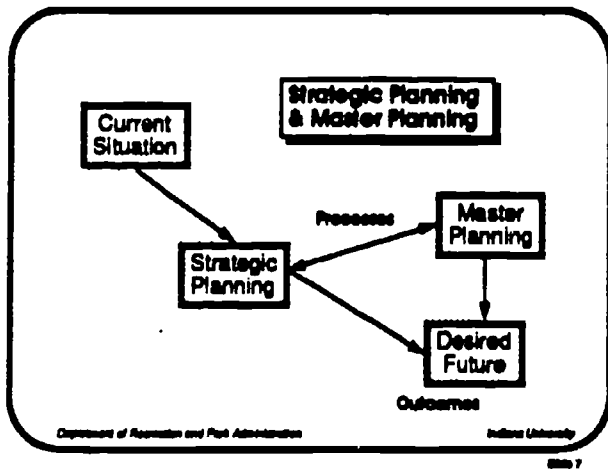
Slide 6

NOTES

ASP Presentation

- *Clarify Direction* — we will know where it is we are going as an agency & why we have chosen to go in that direction
- *Decision Making* — never a simple task becomes more focused as it allows us to direct actions based on a designed future
- *Prepare for the future* — is the key element in our operations today — while we may not know what the future holds, we can have a part in designing it
- *Accountability* — is higher — an ASP provides a measure against which to judge progress





NOTES

ASP Presentation

- Having already defined “strategic planning” we recognize in the process there will not be an elimination of the master planning process, but a focus of the process upon key resources (primarily physical) in order to achieve the agency vision
- We define master planning as ... physical and capital planning tools designed to support the previously developed strategic plan
 - › a different definition
 - › may require rethinking of the master planning process
 - › it does allow same processes to be used

The 12 Commandments of Effective Planning

1. Representation
2. Work Sessions
3. Trust Building
4. Responsibilities
5. Model Selection
6. Top Down & Bottom Up

The 12 Commandments of Effective Planning

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Slide 4

NOTES

ASP Presentation

- ① The planning team should be composed of all elements of your organization - from the policy level to the management level
 - › Size should be 6 to 12 individuals
- ② Face to face work sessions are essential - get away from the office environment and pick a location where the planning team can work uninterrupted
- ③ developing respect & trust for each other essential
 - share values, past history, etc.
 - agree on basic norms of how will work together to be an effective team
- ④ Clear limits of responsibility for the planning team must be established —
 - what roles will the team leaders play - preferably facilitators
- ⑤ Carefully select the planning model appropriate for your organization
- ⑥ Planning should proceed from the TOP down ↘ and BOTTOM up ↗ working to build a *middle ground* of commitment and support

The 12 Commandments of Effective Planning

7. Ongoing Training & Development
8. Keep Information Flowing
9. Educate the Leadership and Staff
10. Realistic Time Frame
11. Desired Outcomes Visible & Tied to Budget
12. Celebration of Victories

The 12 Commandments of Effective Planning

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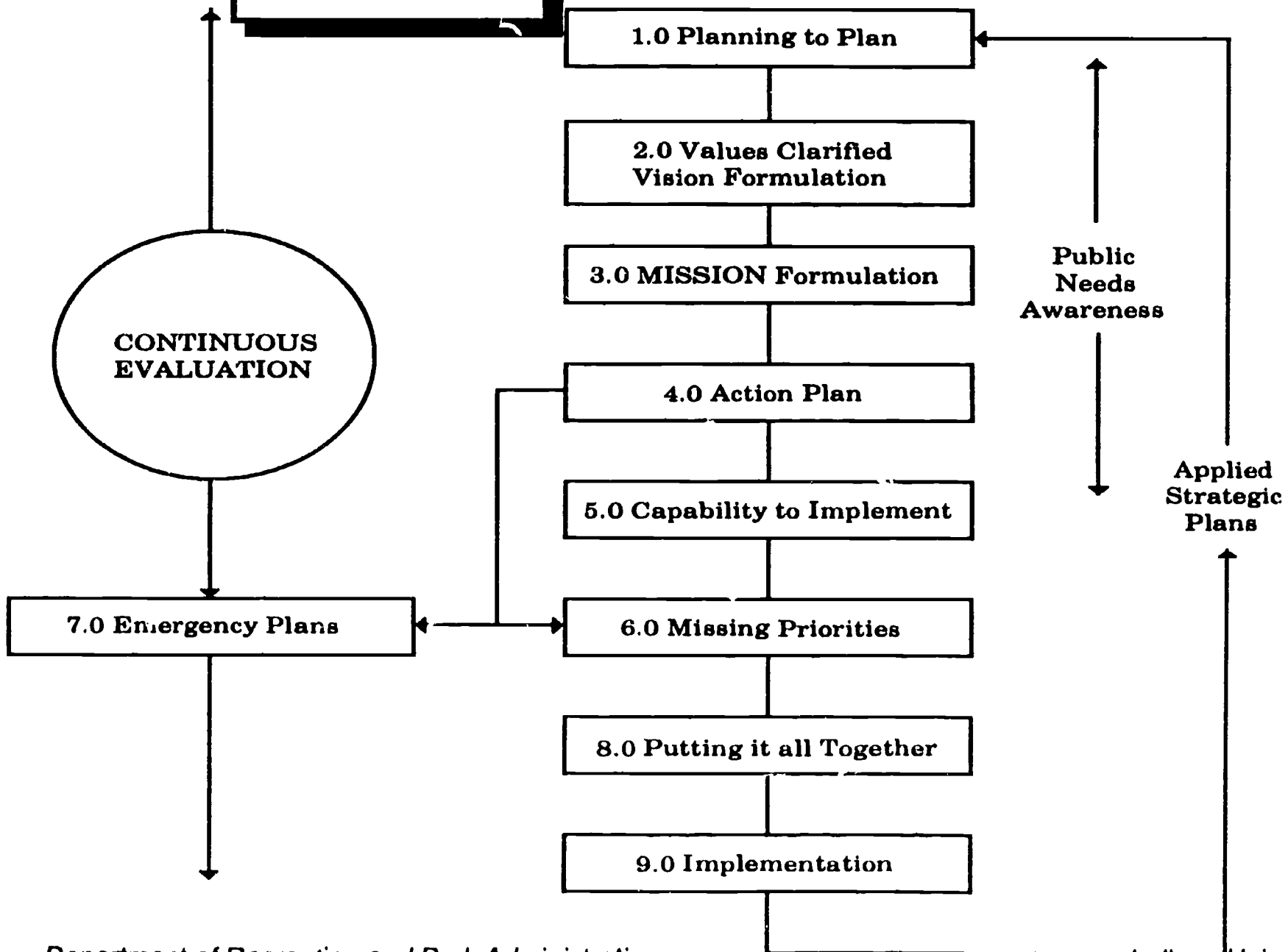
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ASP Presentation

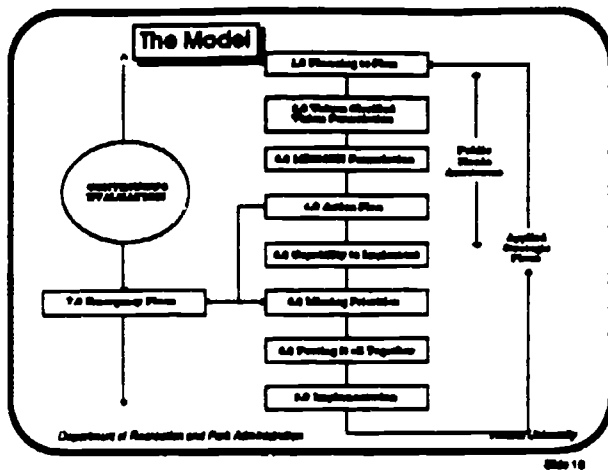
- ⑦ An ongoing program of training about strategic planning should be integrated into the agency's PD programs
- ⑧ The policy setting board must be kept oriented and informed to assure *ownership* of the eventual plan as "OURS"
- ⑨ Constant public relations efforts to keep the plan in front of those who are involved and making decisions -
 - it is essential the leadership and staff be educated about this *more effective way to make decisions* about resource allocations
- ⑩ Recognize that "time" is a key factor - it will take from 9 to 12 months *AT A MINIMUM* to accomplish the plan
 - Implementation will occur over a 24 to 48 month period ideally — *not any longer*
- ① The *DESIRED OUTCOMES* must be visible and the *SPECIFIC STRATEGIES* tied to budget allocations
- ② There must be a *CONSTANT CELEBRATION OF VICTORIES* (even the small ones) to assure positive feelings and commitment to implementation and continuation of the planning process.

The Model



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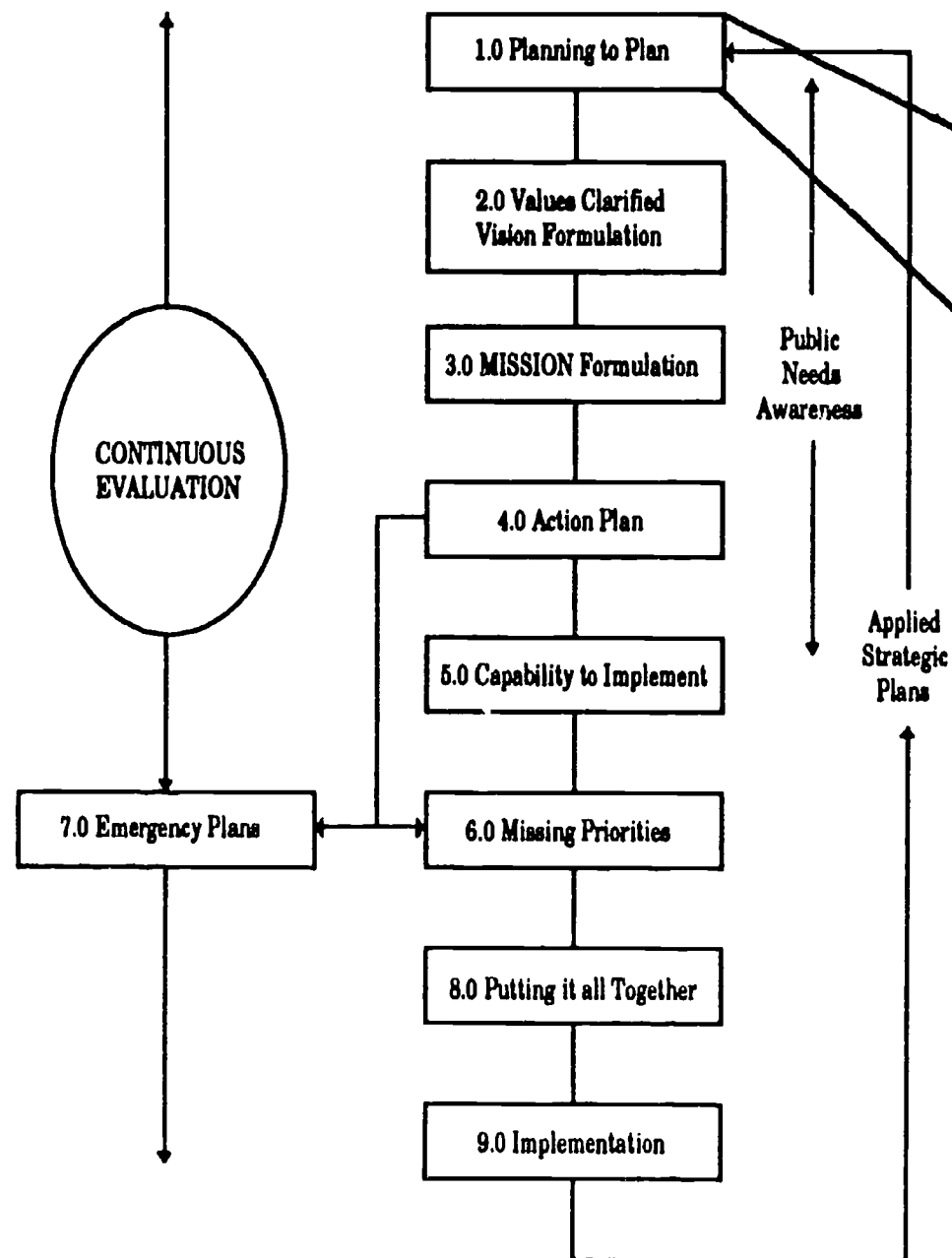


NOTES

ASP Presentation

- The next portion of our discussion is going to focus on the model and its application to your agency
 - It may be necessary to make some synergistic applications to your specific agency
 - I have tried to remain somewhat "generic" in my approach

- Moving right along ...

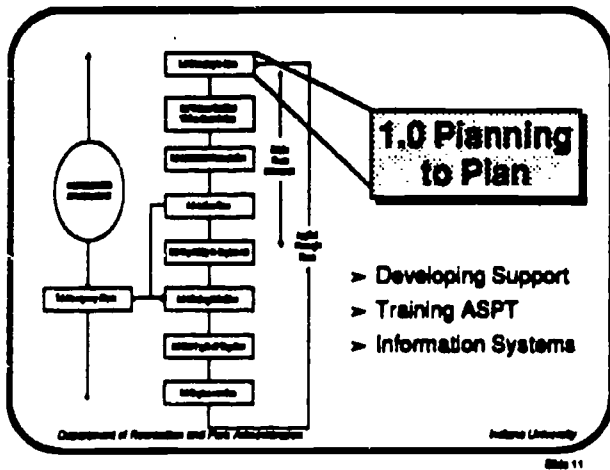


1.0 Planning to Plan

- Developing Support
- Training ASPT
- Information Systems

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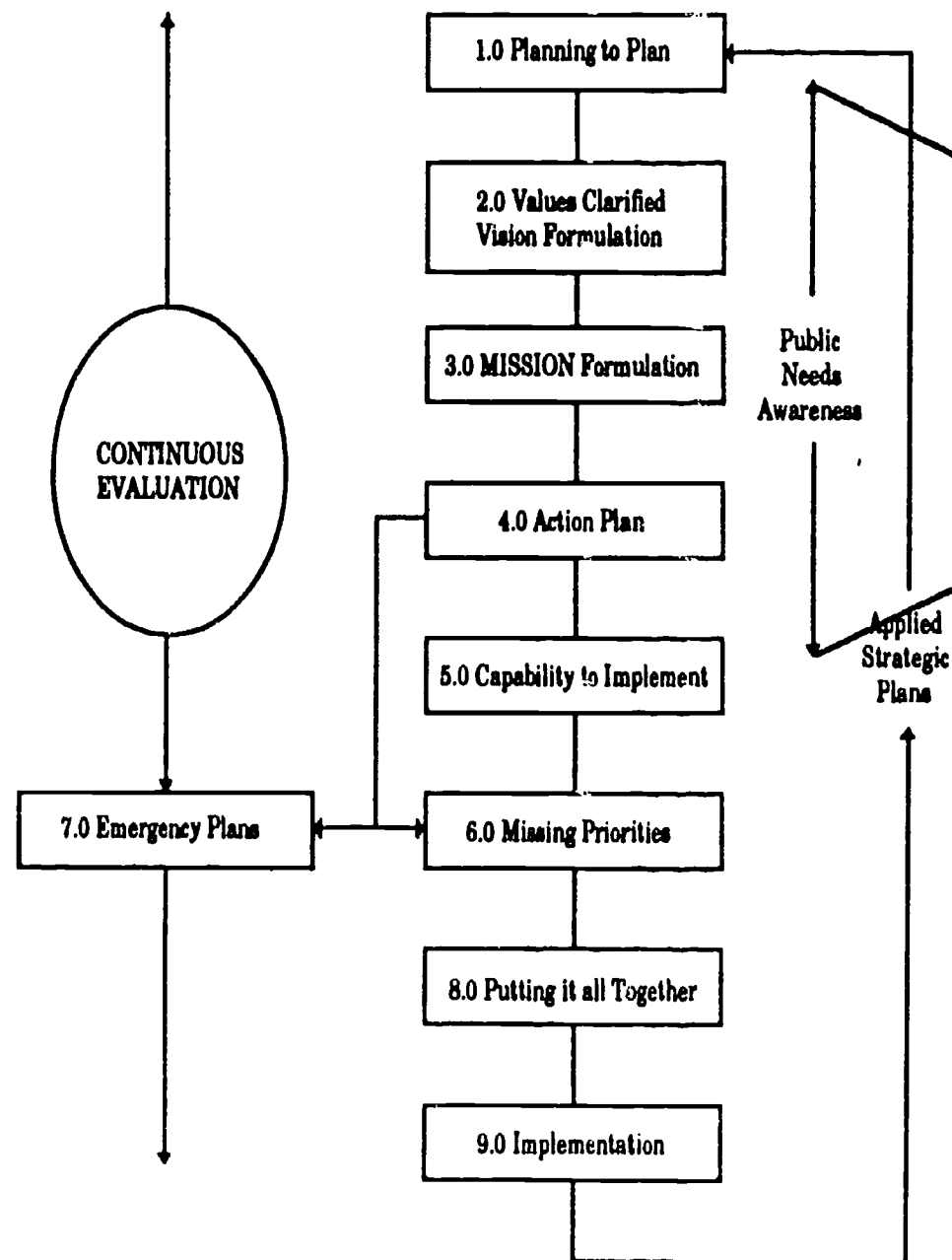
NOTES

ASP Presentation

- Developing Support
 - among
 - › organization leaders
 - › management members
 - › governing body
- Training ASPT
 - Insure team is trained and operational
- Information Systems
 - The beginnings of environmental scanning -
see next slide

Environmental Scanning

(Public Needs Awareness)

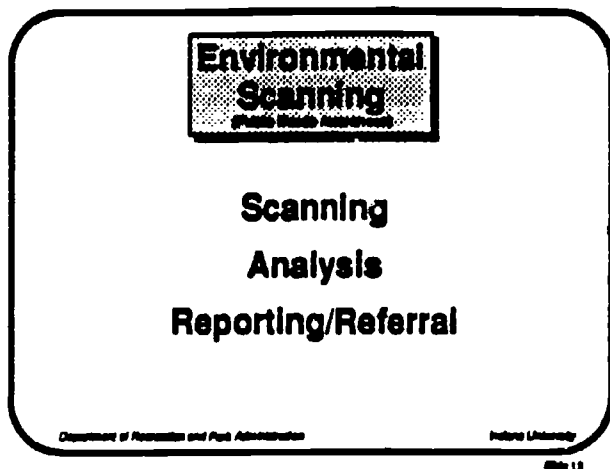


- Developing Support
- Training ASPT
- Information Systems

Environmental Scanning

(Public Needs Awareness)

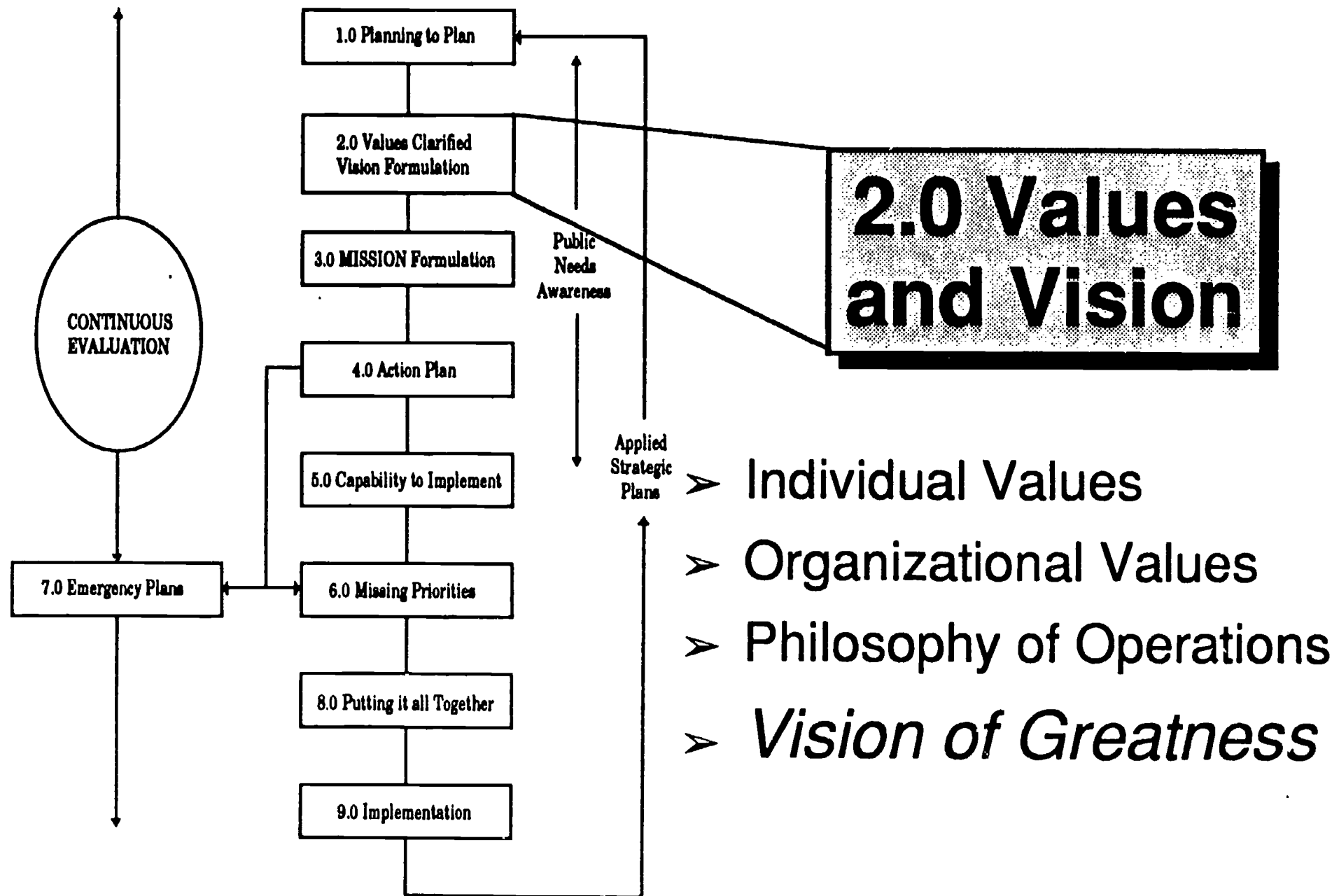
**Scanning
Analysis
Reporting/Referral**



NOTES

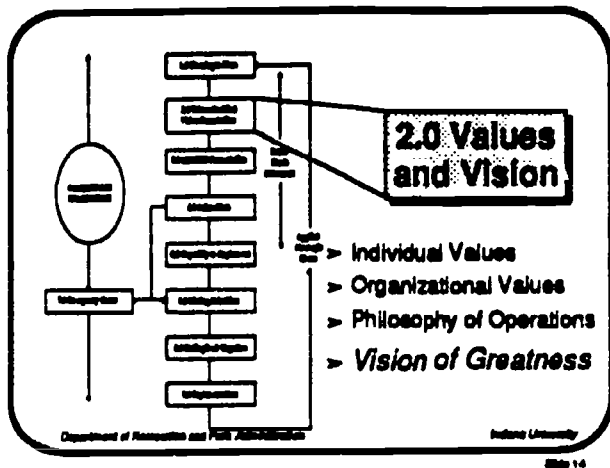
ASP Presentation

- 3 steps in environmental scanning
 - scanning - using all available resources
 - 🍏 external environment to identify key trends that are threats or opportunities
 - 🍏 determine how scanning to occur (team or individually)
 - 🍏 identify sources of scans (newspapers, journals, newsletters, people, etc.)
 - analysis - interpreting the strategic importance of issues and trends
 - 🍏 decide on issues to monitor, issues for immediate action, issues to drop
 - reporting/referral - creating products useful for planning and decision making, such as
 - 🍏 brief "scans" of relevant issues
 - 🍏 a comprehensive scan (overview document)
 - 🍏 policy papers
 - 🍏 seminar or discussion group
 - 🍏 networks and partnerships
 - 🍏 newsletter or electronic mail system



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Indiana University



NOTES

ASP Presentation

➤ Individual Values

- Assess the values of those who will have the greatest impact on the program
- Their values will have a major impact on the organization

➤ Organizational Values

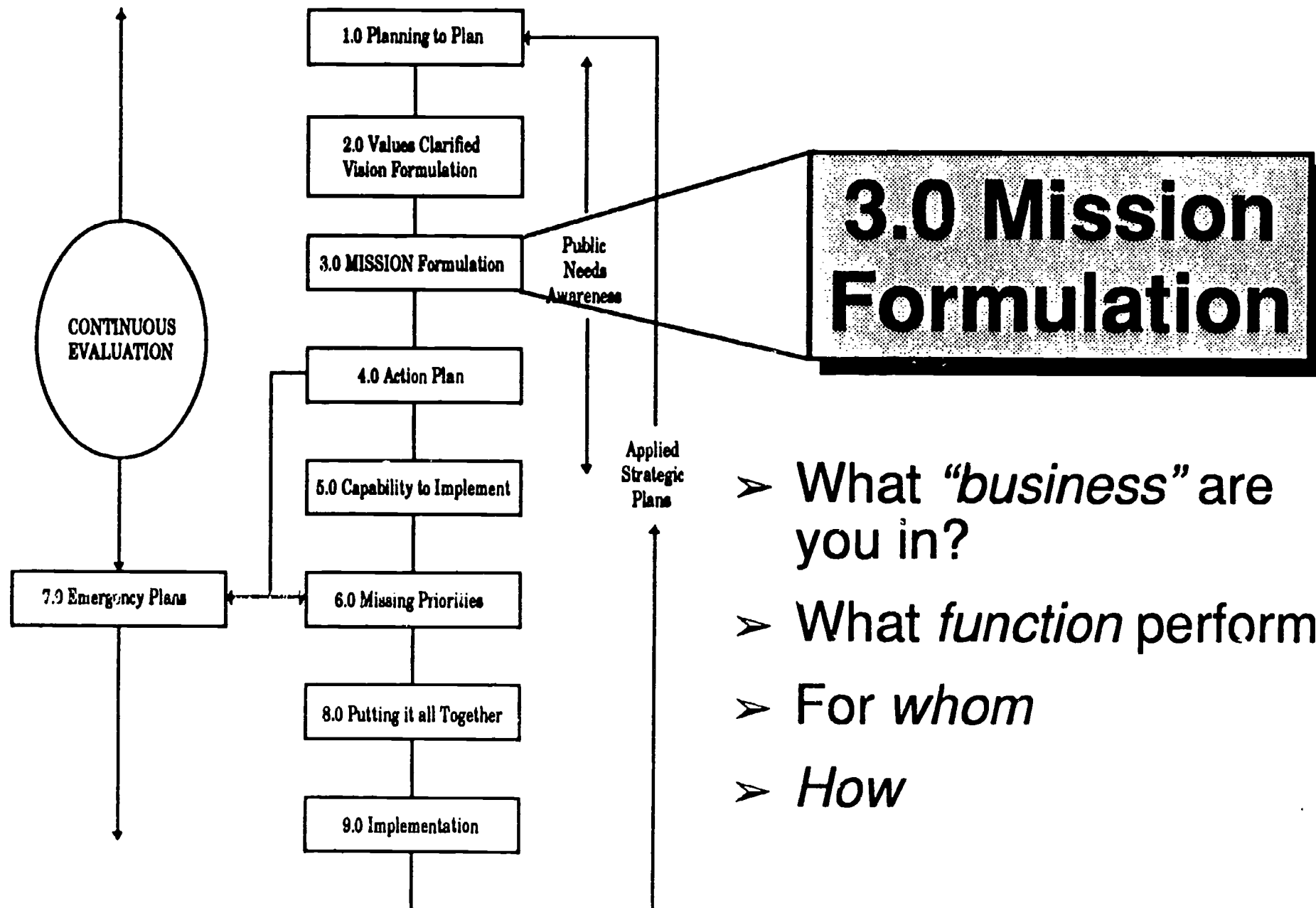
- historical roots of organization
- take time and effort to identify - careful in their assessment and determination

➤ Philosophy of Operations

- How do you go about your business - these are your true values!
- ***ALL OF THE ABOVE CREATE AN ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE***

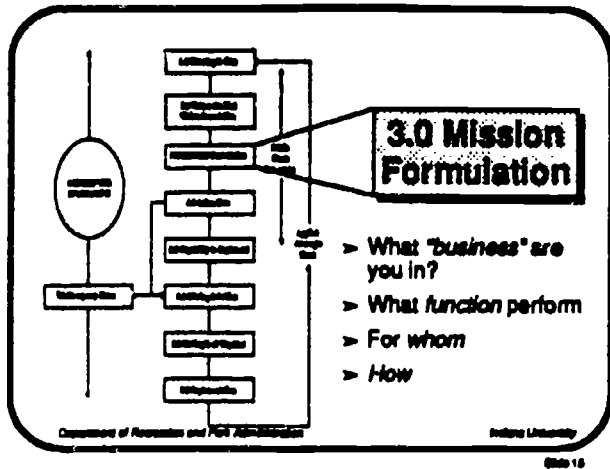
➤ Vision of Greatness

- Determine where you want to be 2-4 years from now
- Be specific about who you are and who you need to be
- The vision needs to be reflective of the future — not the past!



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NOTES

ASP Presentation

- Mission formulation is a process of answering some basic questions and then putting them to words
 - What "*business*" are we in?
 - What business *should* we be in?
 - What is unique and distinctive about our organization?
- What are our principle services?
- Who are our principle customers and clients?
- How do we go about doing what we do?
- How are we different from 3 or 5 years ago?
 - can this be quantified or articulated
- Where do we want to be 3 or 5 years from now?
- The mission statement should be short, easy to understand and answer the questions of:
 - function
 - whom for
 - how we do it

Mission Statement

The Cedar Rapids Recreation Commission provides opportunities for people to participate in quality recreation and leisure activities of their choice.

Through these activities, participants may experience escape, self-satisfaction, personal discover, growth and development, and /or a quality leisure experience.

These opportunities are provided through a diverse offering of programs, experiences, classes, facilities, services, and events.

We intended to fulfill this mission by providing an atmosphere where employees strive for understanding, mutual respect, cooperation, and excellence.

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NOTES

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Mission Statement - Narrow Focus

**We are in the business of *helping*
people *feel good* about *themselves*!**

Mission Statement - Narrow Focus

**We are in the business of *helping*
people *feel good* about *themselves*!**

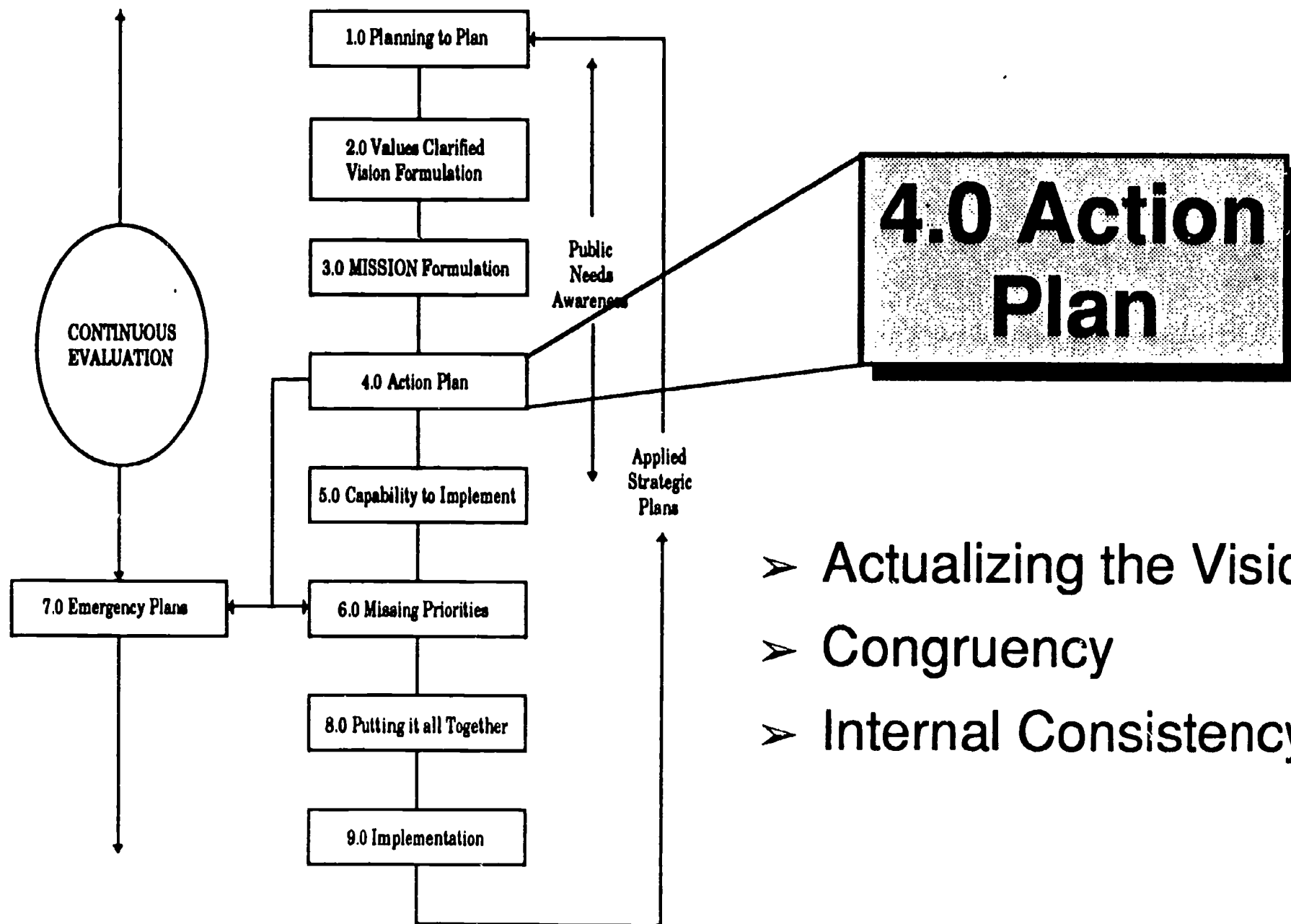
Department of Recreation and Park Administration

Indiana University

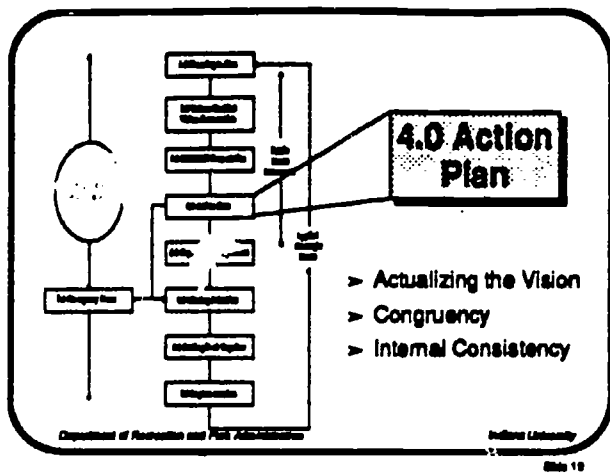
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NOTES

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- Actualizing the Vision
- Congruency
- Internal Consistency



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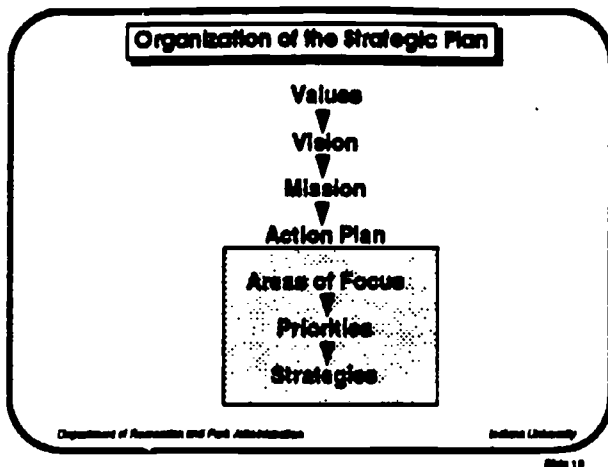
ASP Presentation

- This is the meat of the ASP process - the prework has set the foundation — now begin to ...
- Actualizing the Vision
 - Put into words what it is the vision is all about
 - The specific details of how we are going to get the job done
- Congruency - tie the whole plan to values, vision, mission
- Internal Consistency - this is build by insuring and reviewing the vision and mission statement at every turn
 - put the mission statement where all can see it!
 - make it the litmus test for all action plans

Organization of the Strategic Plan

Values
▼
Vision
▼
Mission
▼
Action Plan

Areas of Focus
▼
Priorities
▼
Strategies



NOTES

ASP Presentation

- there are 3 levels within the action plan - they are
 - Areas of Focus - are *strategic* issues brought into focus by the vision and mission statements
 - have operational definitions - short and to the point
 - Action Priority - is a statement of direction
 - an intent or an action proposed to accomplish
 - Strategy - the how to - "down and dirty"

Let's look at some examples ...

Action Plan Examples

Areas of Focus:

Recreation Opportunities - those activities that insure the public's wants and needs are met

Awareness - those functions that create greater public knowledge of department programs, services, facilities, and opportunities

Resource Development - identifying, locating, mobilizing, securing, and allocating the means by which the department accomplishes its mission

Fiscal Responsibility - those methods and systems of insuring financial integrity and accountability

Action Plan Examples

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Indiana University

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NOTES

ASP Presentation

Action Plan Examples

Priorities & Strategies:

4. Resource Development

- 4.1 To develop and implement plans and processes for facility expansion
 - 4.1.1 To develop a facility evaluation guide for review of facilities that might potentially be available to the department
 - 4.1.2 To develop a 10 year facility master plan that includes new facilities, renovated facilities, program facilities, and cooperative facilities
 - 4.1.3 To develop a plan addressing criteria that would initiate the renovation process
 - 4.1.4 To investigate, develop, and secure traditional and alternative sources of funding for facilities

Action Plan Examples

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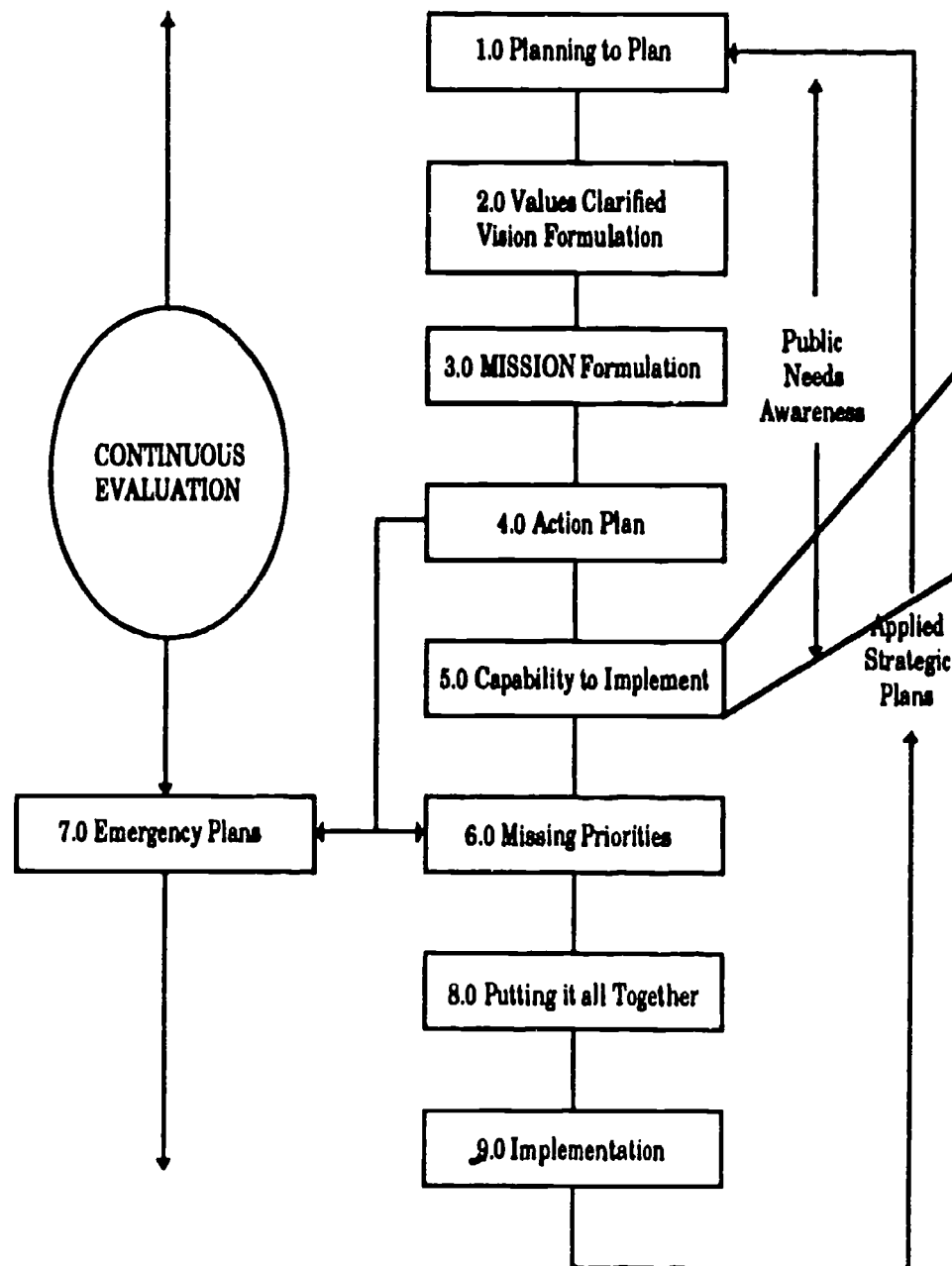
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ASP Presentation

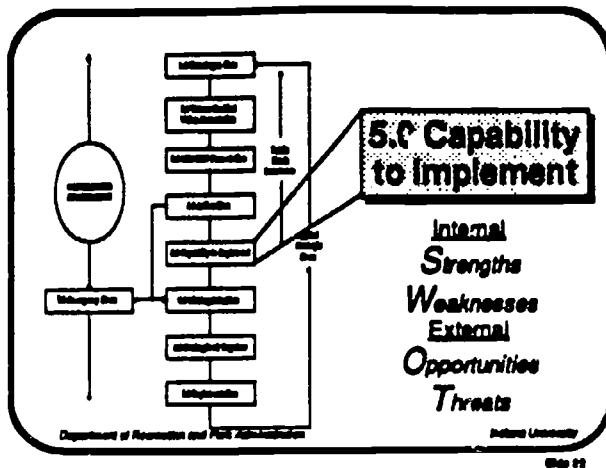
5.0 Capability to Implement

Internal
Strengths
Weaknesses
External
Opportunities
Threats



Department of Recreation and Park Administration

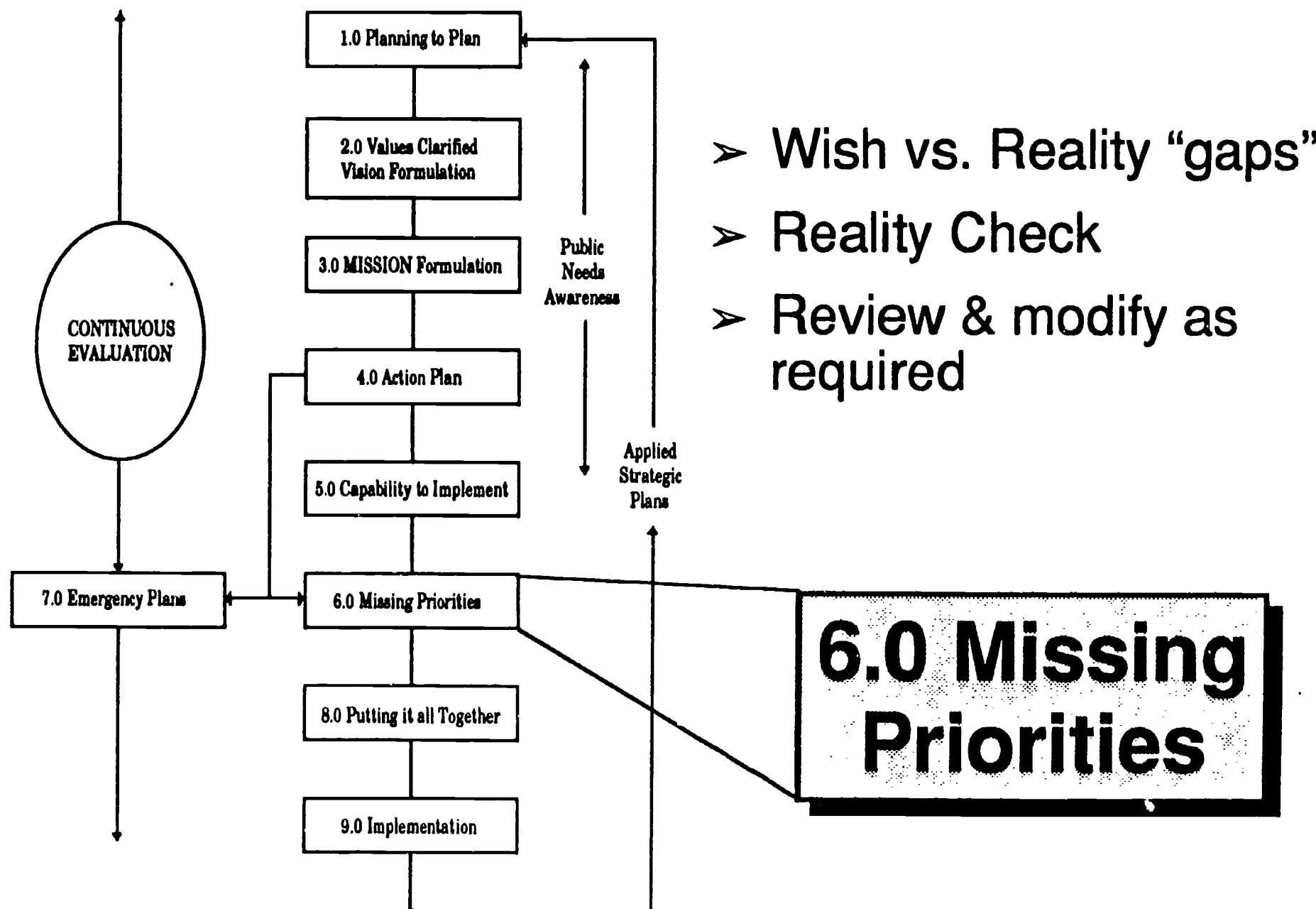
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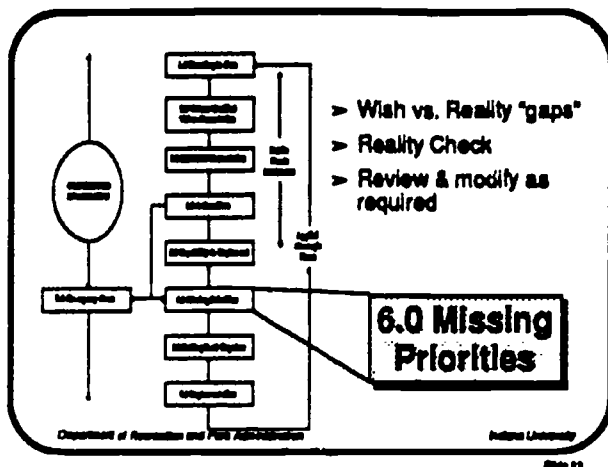


NOTES

ASP Presentation

- Can we do what we want to do?
- Compare what resources are now and anticipated to be available with demands of the plan — what resources will it require?
- More intensive use of environmental scanning at this phase to insure we are actually in touch with the perceived trends
- Flag those action plans that may require resources beyond the existing capability of the organization





NOTES

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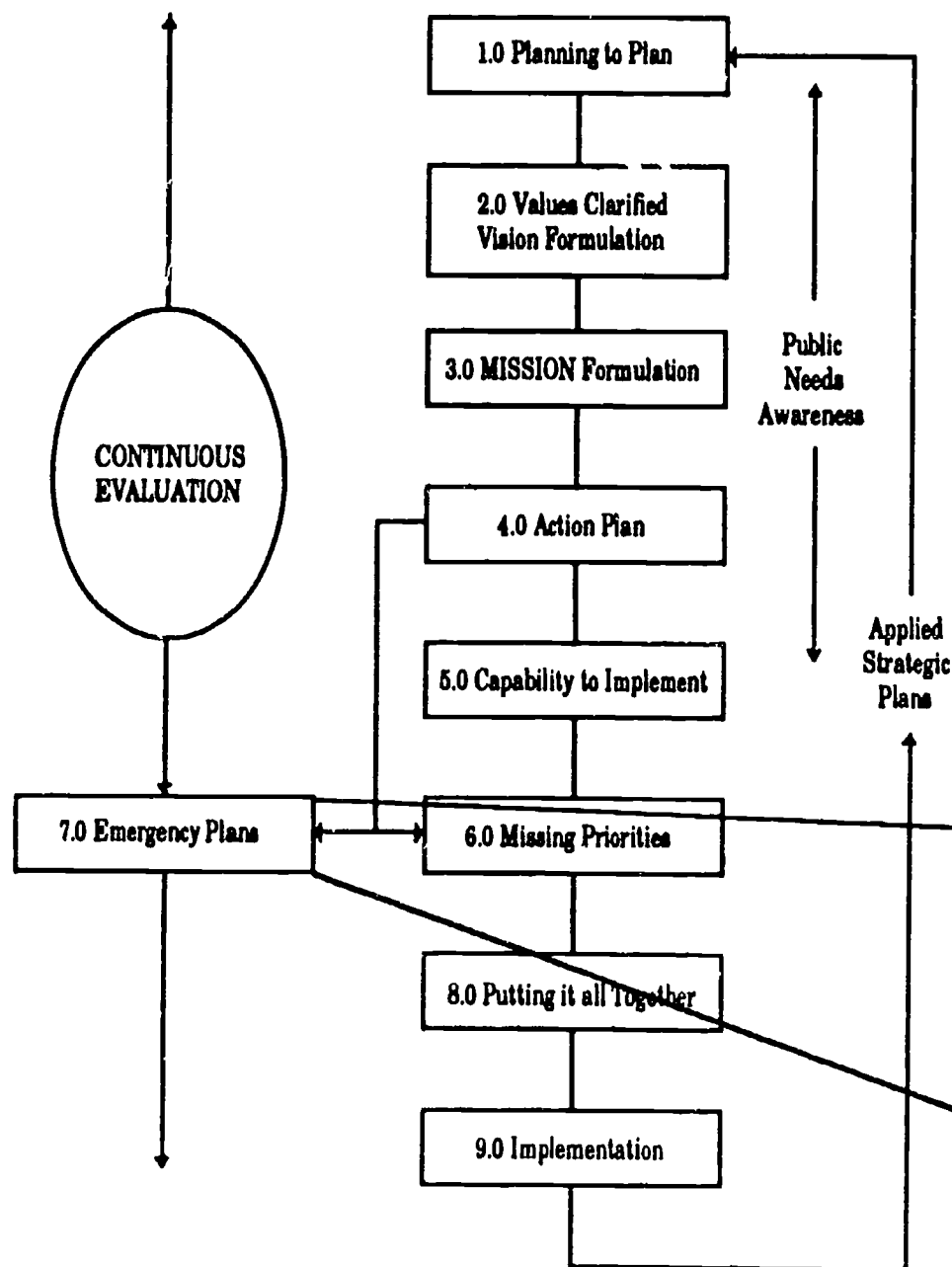
- Compare “action plans” with “capability to implement”
- We truly are in a reality check!
- Gaps are identified as those action plans that are “wish” rather than “reality”

⇒ The arrow runs back to “action plans” so modifications can be made

Caution: do not become overly conservative here

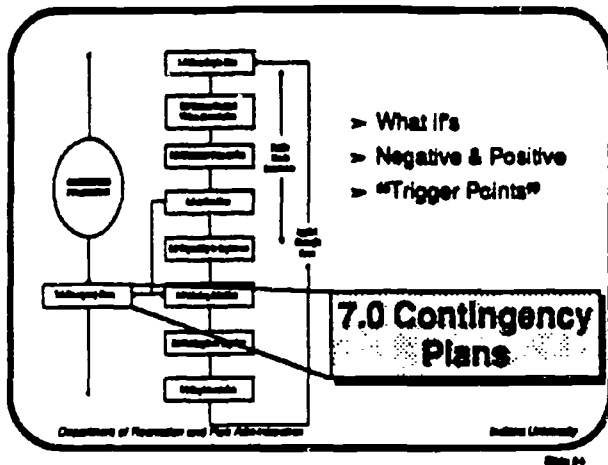
A reality check is not an excuse to back off of well conceived and generated plans

⇒ Missing priorities does not always involve reducing the plan — it may and probably should also include modifying the plan to address areas left out or not addressed in sufficient detail



- What if's
- Negative & Positive
- “Trigger Points”

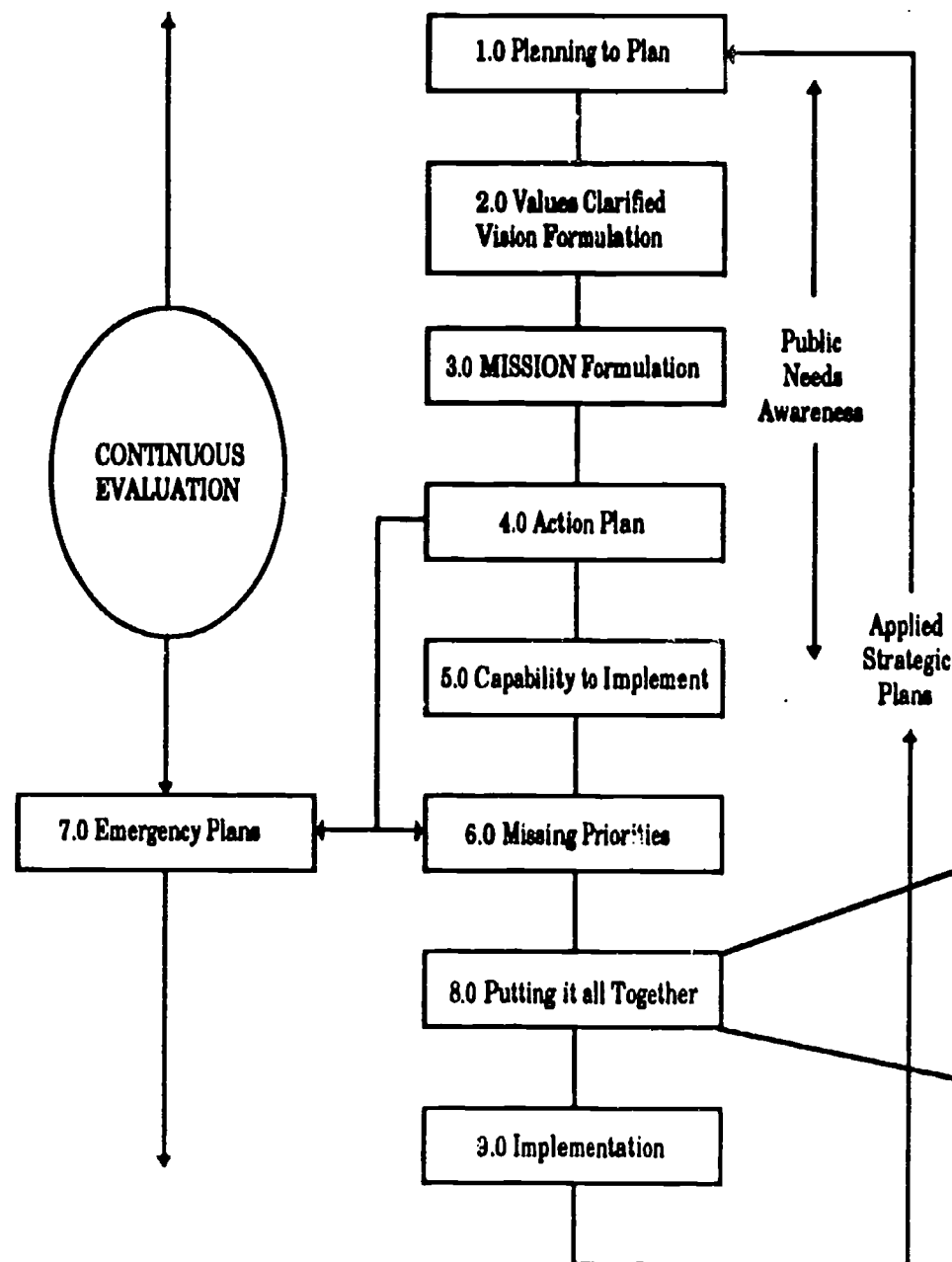
7.0 Contingency Plans



NOTES

ASP Presentation

- Contingency plans call for "what if's" situations
 - What do we do if
 - › a natural disaster destroys facilities
 - › the budget is cut by 5, 10 or 15%
 - › the budget is increased by 5, 10 or 15%
 - › an unknown bequest is received
 - › the director leaves
 - › and so forth
 - It addresses those situations an agency has a high probability of facing
 - It allows the agency to "plan" in advance their responses rather than put out forest fires
- "Trigger Points" are those issues or "external flags" that warn you contingency plans may need to be put into place
 - Could include: shutdowns of plants, budget guidelines, change of council, change of director, new commission/board members, etc.
 - In each case an action occurs effecting the applied strategic plan

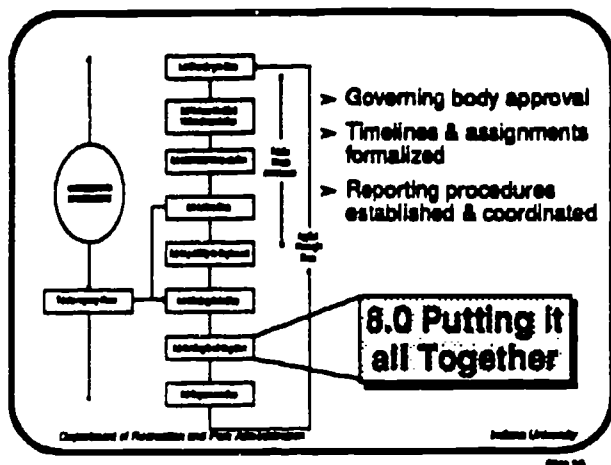


- Governing body approval
- Timelines & assignments formalized
- Reporting procedures established & coordinated

**8.0 Putting it
all Together**

Department of Recreation and Park Administration

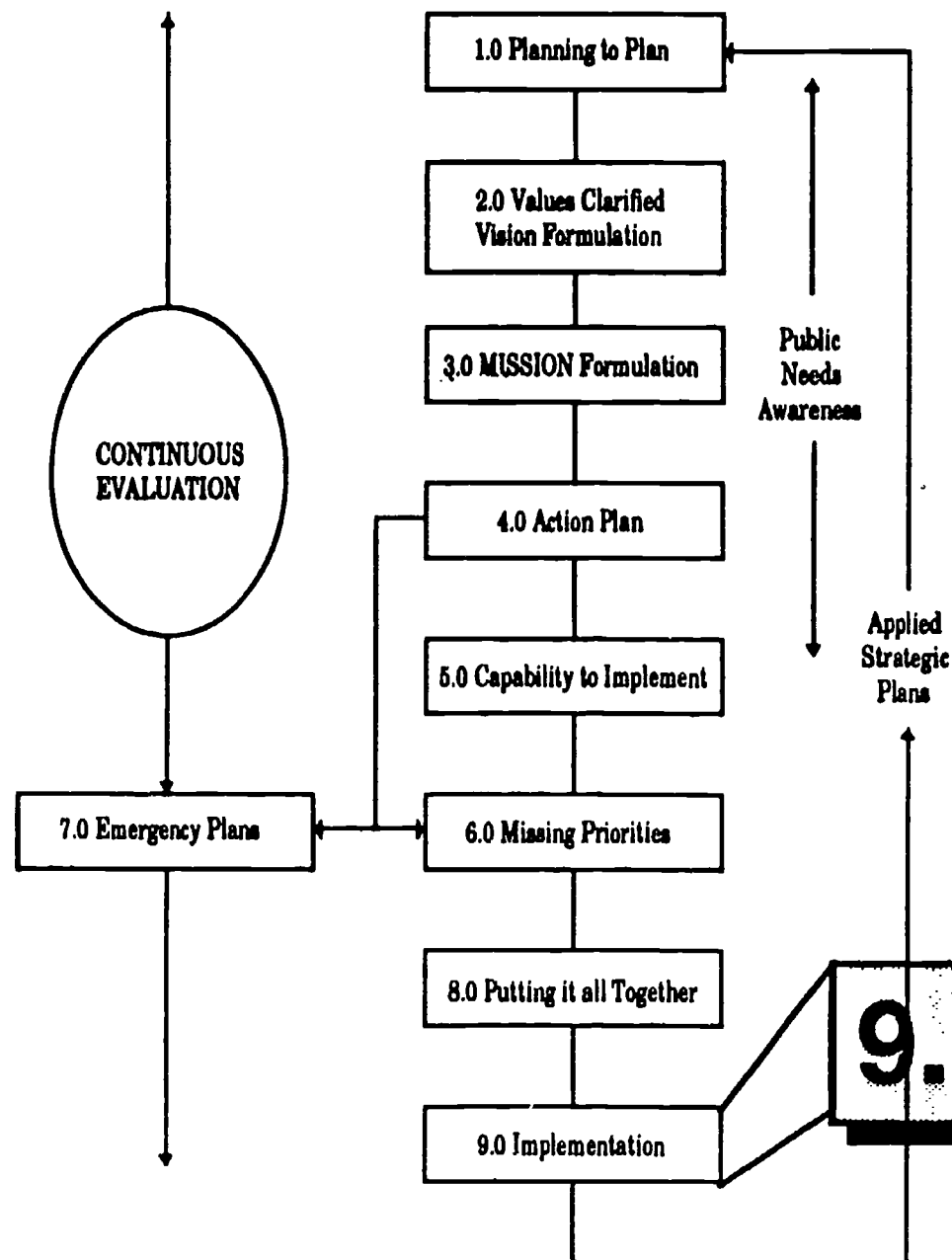
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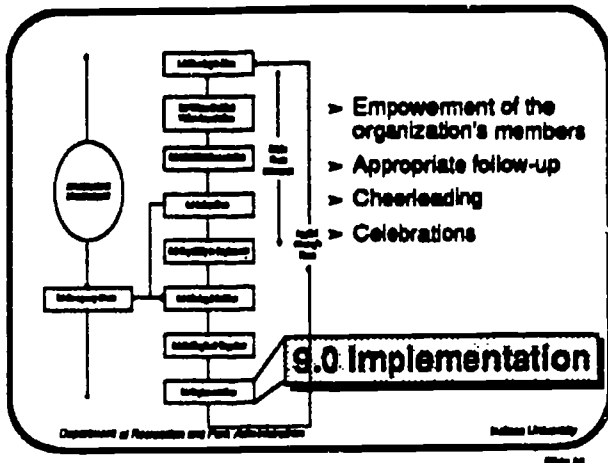
ASP Presentation

- Governing body approval is achieved
 - they have been involved throughout the process and understand it as well as the implications for the organizations
- Timelines & assignments formalized
 - establish specific responsibilities, time lines and dates for accomplishment
 - don't be surprised if responsibilities overlay
 - use teams and work groups to accomplish strategies
 - › the use of teams and work groups *empowers* the members of the organization
- Reporting procedures established & coordinated
 - Reporting and accountability are important issues in the success of a strategic plan
 - reporting should occur on at least a quarterly basis
 - reports to governing body should be
 - › at a minimum annually (prefer semi-annually)
 - › whenever a significant task has been completed
 - › whenever a trigger point has initiated contingency plans



- Empowerment of the organization's members
- Appropriate follow-up
- Cheerleading
- Celebrations

9.0 Implementation



NOTES

ASP Presentation

- This is the task of management — to insure the strategic plan is addressed and followed
 - make the specific assignments identified in the previous step
 - work closely with the various individuals responsible for major sections of the plan
 - become a resource for those who need help or may need to have direction clarified
 - periodically assess the work in progress
 - be the Cheerleader - GOAL CHAMPION for the process - let people know you care
 - recognize success and effort - use little ways to demonstrate the importance of effort
 - › memos or short notes
 - › staff meetings to recognize people
 - › do it on the spot - don't wait
 - › be creative

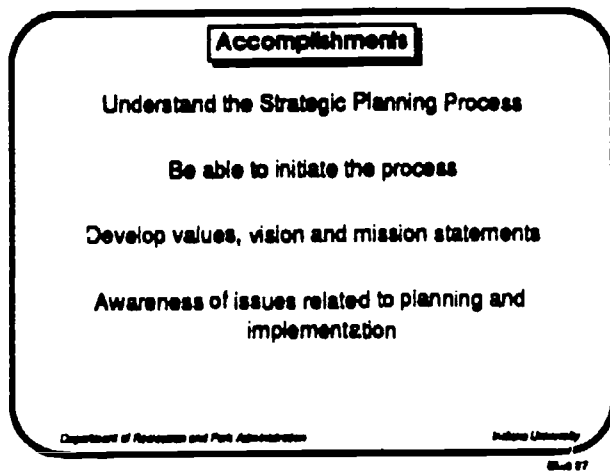
Accomplishments

Understand the Strategic Planning Process

Be able to initiate the process

Develop values, vision and mission statements

Awareness of issues related to planning and
implementation



NOTES

ASP Presentation

- Today my has been to:
 - 1) Define Applied Strategic Planning
 - 2) Share an overview of the process
 - 3) Understand how to implement the process in your agency
 - 4) Develop a values and vision statement and understand the process for a mission statement
 - 5) Be aware of the concerns involved in implementation , monitoring, and evaluation of an applied strategic plan
- We reviewed the planning model and them moved into some exercises applying the principles of applied strategic planning
- We found some difficulties along the way. There became a realization that "planning" is not necessarily simple. It takes:
 - Commitment
 - Effort
 - Time
 - Dedication ... and much more

**ACADEMIC EXPECTATIONS OF THE RESORT
AND COMMERCIAL RECREATION ASSOCIATION**
John Crossley, University of Utah

The purpose of this study was to assess the expectations that university educators have of the Resort and Commercial Recreation Association (RCRA). This is important not only for RCRA planning and marketing, but for commercial recreation educators who will soon be faced with an important choice. In an era of tight budgets, should an commercial recreation educator stick with RCRA membership or switch to the new interest section starting under the National Recreation & Park Association (NRPA)?

The key research questions were: (a) How important are RCRA services; (b) What new services should RCRA provide; (c) Why are persons not members of RCRA. A survey instrument was developed that closely followed the format used by the Travel & Tourism Research Association in their 1989 membership assessment. The key section featured a five point Likert scale listing all 15 current RCRA member services. Open ended questions solicited ideas for new services and reasons for not being a member. The survey sample included all 90 educators from the RCRA member directory, plus 50 other educators from the TTRA directory and the Society of Travel & Tourism Educators (STTE). Return rate was 39.3%, with no follow-up due to financial limitations.

The highest rated RCRA services were: Membership Directory (mean=3.98), Internship Directory (3.82), Annual Conference (3.79), Informal Networking (3.78), Monthly newsletter (3.72), Educator Caucus (3.67), Research Symposium (3.62), Conference Educational Sessions (3.60), Job Placement Service (3.33), Scholarship Program (3.24), and Management Strategies subscription (3.24). Rated below the midpoint were Conference Social Events (2.90), Awards Program (2.88), Regional Conferences (2.73), and Program Exchange (2.53). Using a t test to compare the perceptions of RCRA members to non-members, only one service, Membership Directory, was valued significantly higher by members. Suggestions for new services were extremely diverse, but there seems to be a desire for publications at a higher level of academic status, ie. research journal, proceedings, case studies, etc. As for reasons not to be an RCRA member, major concerns were: cost relative to the service (47%), and high number of and/or exploitation of student members (25%).

It appears that many RCRA services are highly valued by educators. The lower rated services are ones that are more oriented toward the practitioners and students. RCRA should be concerned however, about certain perceptions held by non-members. It may also be difficult for RCRA, a small association, to generate "big league" academic publications. This could be the opening that NRPA needs to generate significant membership for its new interest section.

John Crossley, Department of Recreation and Leisure, HPER N-226,
University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah 84112

AN EXTENSION OF THE GOAL-INTERFERENCE MODEL OF RECREATION CONFLICT:
EXPLORING THE ROLE OF SOCIAL NORMS

Edward J. Ruddell, University of Utah.

During the decade of the 1980's the dominant theoretical orientation for explaining recreation conflict has been the theory of psychological goal interference. The goal-interference model is premised on the idea that it is not activities themselves which drive recreation and leisure experiences, rather those experiences are driven by need satisfaction. When the behavior of a recreationist or group of recreationists interfere with the sought-after goals of another and that interfering behavior is attributed to the first, conflict is said to exist.

A number of limitations of the goal-interference model have been articulated including the potential instability of recreation goals such as dissonance reduction strategies responsible for "goal shifting." The purpose of this study was to extend previous work in outdoor recreation conflict and its sources by utilizing a potentially more "stable" social psychological construct -- social norms.

A stratified probability sample of 528 visitors to a back-island recreation area at Padre Island National Seashore was surveyed during the winter of 1988. Recreation goals were measured by asking respondents to rate the importance of 30 experience motive items. Recreation norms were operationalized by asking visitors to indicate appropriate levels associated with various behaviors such as the appropriate volume for radio playing at the site. Conflict was measured by asking visitors to indicate how much interference to their recreation experience was attributed to various behaviors.

Two regression models were examined. The first used a goal-interference factor labeled *Social Behaviors Conflict* as the dependent variable. This factor included the items: rowdy behaviors, loudness, playing loud radios, partying, drunkenness, and littering. The second model, representing norm-interference conflict, used conflict attributed to playing radios louder than the established norm as the dependent variable. Predictor variables in both models were goal importance factors (derived from factor analysis) and tolerance level (high and low) for loud radios. Those scoring high on *Social Compatibility* motives (the desire to be around considerate others) perceived greater levels of conflict attributed to behaviors such as rowdiness and loud radio playing. Conversely, those seeking *Affiliation* perceived less conflict. Also those whose tolerances met established norms or were more exacting than established norms experienced greater levels of conflict. Results provided support for both goal interference and norm interference as sources of recreation conflict with norms being slightly stronger predictors.

Edward J. Ruddell, Department of Recreation and Leisure, HPR N-226, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT 84112.

OUTDOOR RECREATION CONFLICT AND SOCIAL NORMS: AN EXAMINATION OF INTERGROUP AND INTRA-GROUP CONFLICT

Bill Hendricks, University of Utah

Edward J. Ruddell, University of Utah

Previous recreation conflict research has examined intergroup conflict from both goal interference and norm interference perspectives. Jacob and Schreyer (1980) viewed conflict as occurring when the behavior of one individual or party interferes with the sought-after goals of another. Social norms have been studied as shared standards of acceptable behavior as defined by visitors with regard to specific settings. Ruddell (1989) developed a model integrating both approaches with results supporting norm interference and, to a lesser degree, goal interference theories. Several preceding studies have observed conflict between groups, but have ignored conflict existing within specific user groups. The purpose of this study was to extend the social norms theory of recreation conflict by examining established norms of behavior of hikers and mountain bicyclists in a high-density trail environment. In addition, perceived conflict between and within these two user groups was explored. Informal interviews were held at two trailheads within 100 yards of each other in the Wasatch National Forest during August and September, 1990. Interviewee groups ranged in size from 1 to 5 members. Interviews were also conducted with 10 members of a local organization comprised of primarily hikers and 19 members of a local mountain bicycle organization. A total of 116 individuals were questioned in 43 interviews. Interviews were tape recorded and transcribed for content analysis to classify between group and within group established norms of behavior for hikers and mountain bicyclists. These social norms provide a basis for further theoretical understanding of recreation conflict and for the appropriate land management decision-making and policy development of multiple-use trail systems involving mountain bicyclists and hikers. A follow up study will be conducted during the months of July, August and September, 1991.

Bill Hendricks, Department of Recreation and Leisure, HPR N-226, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT 84112.

ATTITUDES ABOUT HONESTY AND ETHICS AMONG SELECTED LEISURE SERVICE PROFESSIONALS IN THE STATE OF UTAH

Mark A. Widmer, University of Utah and S. Harold Smith, Brigham Young University

Universities have played a greatly diminished role in the area of formal more education over the past 50 years. The need to address the issue of honesty and ethics has been identified in a number of areas including education, business and leisure services (Sand, 1988), (Fain & Gillespie, 1990). The purpose of this research was to obtain baseline data on attitudes about honesty and ethics among selected leisure services professionals (LSP) in the State of Utah. A survey instrument developed by David and Owen Cherrington was used as the measurement tool (Cherrington, 1990). The instrument consisted of four sections. Section one contained questions related to demographics. Section two contained 34 questions relating to personal honesty. Section three presented 20 questions about the respondents' moral training, work ethic, and pride in craftsmanship. The fourth and final section was made up of five moral dilemmas. In section four, each respondent was asked to read the dilemma and then indicate how one should act. Each dilemma presented both positive and negative elements. The respondents were then asked to indicate how important nine different types of moral reasoning models were in making their decisions.

Correlation coefficients showed positive relationships between honesty and age (.414), education (.374), and experience (.447). Correlations between honesty and rule deontology (.531) and dilemma behavior and rule deontology (.715) were the highest. The data indicated that respondents with higher honesty scores had a tendency to use rule deontology as their form of moral reasoning. Respondents with higher dilemma behavior scores also had strong tendencies to use rule deontology as their form of moral reasoning. Dilemma behavior was positively correlated to nonhedonistic rule utilitarianism (.388). Dilemma behavior was negatively correlated with both hedonistic act utilitarianism (-.569) and nonhedonistic act utilitarianism (-.392). Leisure service professionals ranked third highest in honesty and ethics mean scores compared to twelve other populations previously studied by Cherrington and Cherrington (1979).

The results indicate that the LSP's studied were more alike than different. This is important in light of previous research which found widely varying mean scores among the 12 populations previously studied. It appears that older LSP's are more honest than younger LSP's. Cherrington reported similar findings regarding age (Fielding, 1990). Higher honesty scores among LSP's in Utah, like other professions, were positively correlated to rule deontology type of moral reasoning and negatively correlated to act type moral reasoning.

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226 HPER Building, SLC, UT 84112.

S. Harold Smith, Recreation Management and Youth Leadership,
Brigham Young University, 273-H, RB, Provo, UT 84602.

META-ANALYSIS OF LEISURE AND DAILY EXPERIENCES: AN EXERCISE IN METHODOLOGY

Carlos I. Ramos, Bill Hendricks, Roy Ramthun, Cathy Morris & Bob Jones, University of Utah

The interest of many researchers in examining leisure in daily experiences has increased in the last ten years. The seminal work of Csikszentmihalyi (1975) using the experience sampling method (ESM) has promoted many of those investigations. This study is an attempt to examine the effect of leisure and non-leisure settings on subjective experience using the results of published empirical studies. The purpose of this presentation will be to report on the results of this study and to illustrate the method of meta-analysis (Rosenthal 1984). A review of literature was conducted to obtain articles on that topic. Twenty articles were found that related to subjective experience, ESM, and leisure. Among the literature identified were conceptual papers, theses and dissertation, books, and journal articles. From the twenty papers, seventeen were empirical studies but only six reported results that focused on leisure contexts (i.e., leisure vs. non-leisure) and subjective experience. According to Rosenthal (1984) when combining research results from independent studies a minimum of four studies are needed and more than one significance test should be reported in the meta-analysis. Two doctoral students evaluated each one of the six studies. The students rated, on a 9 point scale, aspects such as quality of the design, sampling procedures, quality of statistical analysis, and quality of the study. A correlation of .75 ($p < .001$) was obtained between the two raters. The average evaluation score for each article was used as a weight in the meta-analysis procedures. Two formulas for significance testing when combining research results were selected. Those formulas used were weighted z and mean p . The formula used to obtain the effect size was the weighted mean Z_r . As a final step, a formula that assesses the reliability of the results of the meta-analysis (i.e., "file drawer problem") was utilized. Results show a weighted z of 5.62 ($p < .001$) and a mean p of 4.151 ($p < .001$). The weighted mean Z_r for effect size obtained was .36. The results of the file drawer problem calculations indicate that 67 studies supporting the null hypothesis between leisure and non-leisure contexts and subjective experience would be required to invalidate the results of this study. Studies using meta-analytic procedures to assess the effect size of theoretical relationships in leisure studies offers an interesting alternative to research endeavors.

Carlos I. Ramos, Coordinator of Research- Western Laboratory for Leisure Research, Department of Recreation and Leisure, University of Utah 84112

**INTERMOUNTAIN SYMPOSIUM ON LEISURE AND RECREATION
BRIGHAM YOUNG UNIVERSITY, NOVEMBER 1990**

TITLE: A Profile of Municipal Park and Recreation Directors in
Large Western Cities: Do Good Ol' Boys Really Run the Show?

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A PROFILE OF MUNICIPAL PARK AND RECREATION DIRECTORS IN LARGE WESTERN CITIES: DO GOOD OL' BOYS REALLY RUN THE SHOW?

INTRODUCTION

The United States is becoming increasingly metropolitan. The share of our population living in metropolitan areas increased from 56.1 percent in 1950 to 76.9 percent in 1987. The metropolitan population in 1987 reached 187 million, an increase of 15 million since 1980. Nearly 86 percent of the United States population growth since 1980 has taken place within metropolitan areas.

The western region of the United States is viewed by many as an attractive area to live because of its, comfortable climate; economic growth and expansion; vastness; and beautiful and easily accessible natural resources. All of these attributes create superior quality of life. Rapid population growth occurred in the western United States during the 1980's. For example, the population of Mesa, Arizona has increased approximately 70 percent between 1980 and 1986. Other cities like Plano, Texas (increased 53.5%), Anchorage (increased 34.7%), and Colorado Springs (increased 26.8%) have experienced similar population rate increases. Currently, the western region of the United States includes 77 cities with populations over 100,000 with over 102 million residents in these large cities.

As metropolitan areas continue to expand in the west, the importance of and demand for park and recreation services grows. The increased population in this region has taxed existing leisure services, greatly enhancing the value of present and future services. The value of recreation facilities and programs in the lives of urban Americans has been well documented. The leisure industry has grown to a \$238 billion business in this country. At the local level, a community's perceived quality of life, of which leisure services are a major component, has been shown to be an important factor in corporate relocation decisions and private property value assessments.

Municipal park and recreation department directors in large western cities face several unique problems. They have to develop primary infrastructure during an era of contracting financial resources, unlike the other regions of the United States that already have their basic infrastructure intact. Equally problematic is the decline of available intergovernmental revenues for park and leisure services. Depending upon point of view, these problems can be perceived as handicaps or incredible opportunities.

Previous studies have examined the status of large municipal park and recreation department programs (McDonald & Cordell, 1988), employee demographics (Henkel & Godbey, 1977), and financial practices (Bretting & Turco, 1990; Crossley, 1986) at the national level. This paper focuses on the directors of park and recreation departments in large cities in the western United States. Additionally, park and recreation departments and the revenue sources they utilize will be examined.

Stereotypical Park and Recreation Director

This paper presents a profile of municipal park and recreation directors in the largest cities in the western region of the United States. In doing this, the authors intend to dispel the commonly held stereotype of the "Good Ol' Boy" park and recreation director. This stereotype is especially prevalent in regions other than the west. The stereotypical image of the parks and recreation director is as follows: An Anglo, male, 60 years of age who has worked his way up the organizational ladder. He has either formerly been superintendent of the maintenance division, or recreation supervisor of the largest municipal recreation center in the city for several decades prior to receiving the directorship. The stereotypical

park and recreation director is not concerned with professional association affiliation, certification or continuing education. It is the intention of the authors that through survey data analyses, this widely held stereotype will be disproved and replaced with a more realistic director profile.

Survey research data for municipal park and recreation directors and their departments in cities larger than 100,000 population within the National Recreation and Park Association's (NRPA) Western and Pacific regions are utilized to construct the director's profile. The following variables are examined: gender, ethnicity, age, education both major and highest degree obtained, tenure with department, tenure in the parks and recreation profession, membership in professional associations and certification. Prior to presenting the research findings, the research methodology is discussed. After the director profile is constructed and compared to the stereotype, possible implications for the parks and recreation profession are examined and suggestions for future research identified.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The data set used for this paper is a subset of a larger national survey (Municipal Park and Recreation Contract-Revenue Source Survey) conducted by the authors in 1989. Data for the western municipalities surveyed are reported. The original survey is a population survey of municipal park and recreation department directors in cities with more than 100,000 residents in the United States. The cohort analyzed for this paper is park and recreation departments within NRPA's western and pacific regions. Responses from 60 municipal park and recreation department directors within these regions are reported (See Table 1 for responding cities).

The 1985 United States Census Bureau Population Estimates were used to determine those cities meeting site requirements. The most recent edition of the International City Management Association's (ICMA) *The Municipal Yearbook* was used to obtain the name and addresses of the current department directors. For those cities that having separate park and recreation departments, the directors of both departments were contacted. In total, 81 municipal park and/or recreation department directors were contacted. By contacting the directors, aggregate level data on the city and director were received.

In order to improve the content validity of the data collection instrument, it was assessed by several colleagues and practitioners in public administration and recreation management. The final instrument contained twelve director-specific items.

Each department director was sent a mail survey consisting of 64 questions. A problem frequently encountered with mail surveys of this length is the poor return rate. The average rate of return is less than 50 percent. Generally it falls in the range of 30-40 percent. To alleviate this problem, an elaborate management system for tracking and follow-up was established. First, a pre-survey notification was sent to all of the directors in the sample one week prior to the survey's expected arrival. Directors were given 14 days to complete and return the original questionnaire. Survey follow-up procedures were as follows:

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| 1. First follow-up letter | One week after original deadline |
| 2. Follow-up telephone call | One week after follow-up letter |
| 3. Second questionnaire distribution | One week after telephone call |
| 4. Follow-up call | Two weeks after second questionnaire deadline |
| 5. Follow-up call | One week after second follow-up call |

Table 1

Responding Survey Cities and Population Size					
City	State	Population (1986 Est.)	City	State	Population (Est.)
1. Abilene	TX	112,000	30. Lincoln	NE	183,000
2. Albuquerque	NM	367,000	31. Little Rock	AR	181,000
3. Amarillo	TX	166,000	32. Long Beach	CA	396,000
4. Anaheim	CA	241,000	33. Los Angeles	CA	3,259,000
5. Anchorage	AK	235,000	34. Mesa	AZ	251,000
6. Arlington	TX	250,000	35. Modesto	CA	133,000
7. Aurora	CO	218,000	36. New Orleans	LA	554,000
8. Austin	TX	467,000	37. Oxnard	CA	127,000
9. Bakersfield	CA	150,000	38. Phoenix	AZ	894,000
10. Baton Rouge	LA	241,000	39. Plano	TX	111,000
11. Beaumont	TX	120,000	40. Pomona	CA	116,000
12. Berkeley	CA	104,000	41. Pueblo	CO	101,000
13. Colorado Springs	CO	273,000	42. Reno	NV	110,000
14. Concord	CA	106,000	43. Sacramento	CA	324,000
15. Corpus Cristi	TX	264,000	44. San Antonio	TX	914,000
16. El Paso	TX	492,000	45. San Bernadino	CA	139,000
17. Eugene	OR	105,000	46. San Diego	CA	1,015,000
18. Fort Worth	TX	430,000	47. San Francisco	CA	749,000
19. Fullerton	CA	109,000	48. San Jose	CA	712,000
20. Fresno	CA	285,000	49. Santa Ana	CA	237,000
21. Garden Grove	CA	135,000	50. Scottsdale	AZ	111,000
22. Garland	TX	177,000	51. Seattle	WA	486,000
23. Glendale	CA	154,000	52. Shreveport	LA	220,000
24. Honolulu	HI	372,000	53. Sunnyvale	CA	112,000
25. Houston	TX	1,729,000	54. Tempe	AZ	136,000
26. Irving	TX	129,000	55. Topeka	KS	119,000
27. Kansas City	KS	162,000	56. Tulsa	OK	374,000
28. Lakewood	CO	122,000	57. Tucson	AZ	359,000
29. Las Vegas	NV	192,000	58. Wichita	KS	289,000

The number of surveys received was 60 with four refusals for a return rate of 79 percent. The authors contend the systematic follow-up procedures were responsible for the very strong rate of return. Consequently, the findings presented in this paper are generalizable to the entire population of park and/or recreation departments serving populations greater than 100,000 in NRPA's Western and Pacific regions.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Director Profile

Upon examining the demographic characteristics of municipal park and recreation directors in large western cities, the following is revealed: The majority are male (93.3%), Anglo (91.6%) and as a group, college educated (98.3%). Several directors possess a masters or doctorate (35%). Surprisingly, less than half of the sample (41.4%) have their degrees in park and recreation administration. The average age of the directors (48 years) is much younger than hypothesized. Refer to Table 2 for complete findings.

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of Large Municipal Park and Recreation Department Directors in Western Cities				
<u>Characteristic</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Range</u>
Gender				
Male	56	93.3%		
Female	4	6.7		
Ethnicity				
Anglo	55	91.6%		
African-American	3	5.0		
Hispanic	1	1.7		
Asian	1	1.7		
Age	58		48.3	36 to 71
Highest Academic Degree				
High School/GED	1	1.7%		
Associates	1	1.7		
Bachelors	37	61.6		
Masters	20	33.3		
Doctorate	1	1.7		
Highest Degree (Major)				
Park and Recreation Administration	24	41.3%		
Bus. Administration	5	8.6		
Public Administration	6	10.3		
Architecture	3	5.2		
Education	6	10.3		
Finance	5	8.6		
Other	9	15.5		

Examination of the professional profile of municipal park and recreation department directors in large western cities reveals a very experienced profession. Directors, as a whole, have considerable experience in the field. The average number of years of experience for department directors in large western cities is twenty-one. Most directors have been in their present position for more than ten years. In addition to work experience, a large portion of the sample hold memberships with professional associations. Over 86 percent of the directors surveyed are active members of NRPA. Almost half (48 percent) of the directors are certified as professionals through NRPA or their state recreation association. Eighty-seven percent of the sample also belongs to their state's recreation and park association. The other professional associations directors are affiliated with include: American Society for Public Administrators (ASPA), and the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance (AAHPERD). Refer to Table 3 for complete findings.

Table 3

Professional Characteristics of Large Municipal Park and Recreation Department Directors in Western Cities				
<u>Characteristic</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Range</u>
Tenure (years)	60		10.8	1 to 39
Years in P&R Field	60		21.3	1 to 44
Association Affiliation				
NRPA	52	86.7%		
AAHPERD	2	3.3		
ASPA	6	10.0		
State's P&R	52	86.7		
NRPA Certified				
Yes	29	48.3%		
No	31	51.7		

Department Profile

Throughout the 1980's, a serious attempt was made by educators and practitioners to change the identity of the profession by modifying the name of the profession. The notion was that parks and recreation did not adequately describe the nature of the profession. An illustration of this trend follows. At the most recent (1989) NRPA Annual Congress held in San Antonio, Professor John Crompton suggested that municipal departments providing leisure services should change their more traditional name (Park and Recreation Department) to department of tourism, community services, or cultural services. Descriptive survey data from this research indicate that most large municipal departments in the western United States are referred to as parks and recreation departments. Approximately two-thirds of the departments use this title. Only 20 percent of the responding directors work for departments that have the phrase community services in the formal title. See Table 4 for complete findings.

Table 4

Municipal Leisure Service Agency Titles in Large Western Cities		
<u>Title</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Park and Recreation	38	63.4%
Park, Recreation and Community Services	12	20.0
Park, Recreation and Cultural Services	2	3.3
Leisure Services	2	3.3
Park (Only)	3	5.0
Other	<u>3</u>	<u>5.0</u>
Total	60	100%

Financial Resources

This section provides a brief description of fiscal resources available to directors in large western cities. General fund appropriations comprise the largest proportion of total department revenues (68.1%). User fees/charges (17.9%), special taxation (6.9%) and government grants (3.6%) are other revenue sources making up a substantial portion of total department revenues. The average size of the park and recreation department budget for large cities in the western region is \$14.3 million. Refer to Figure 1 for complete findings.

The importance of the previously presented findings are discussed in the conclusion. In the final section, findings from the western regional data base are compared to national data. Further, implications of these findings will be discussed and future research projects suggested.

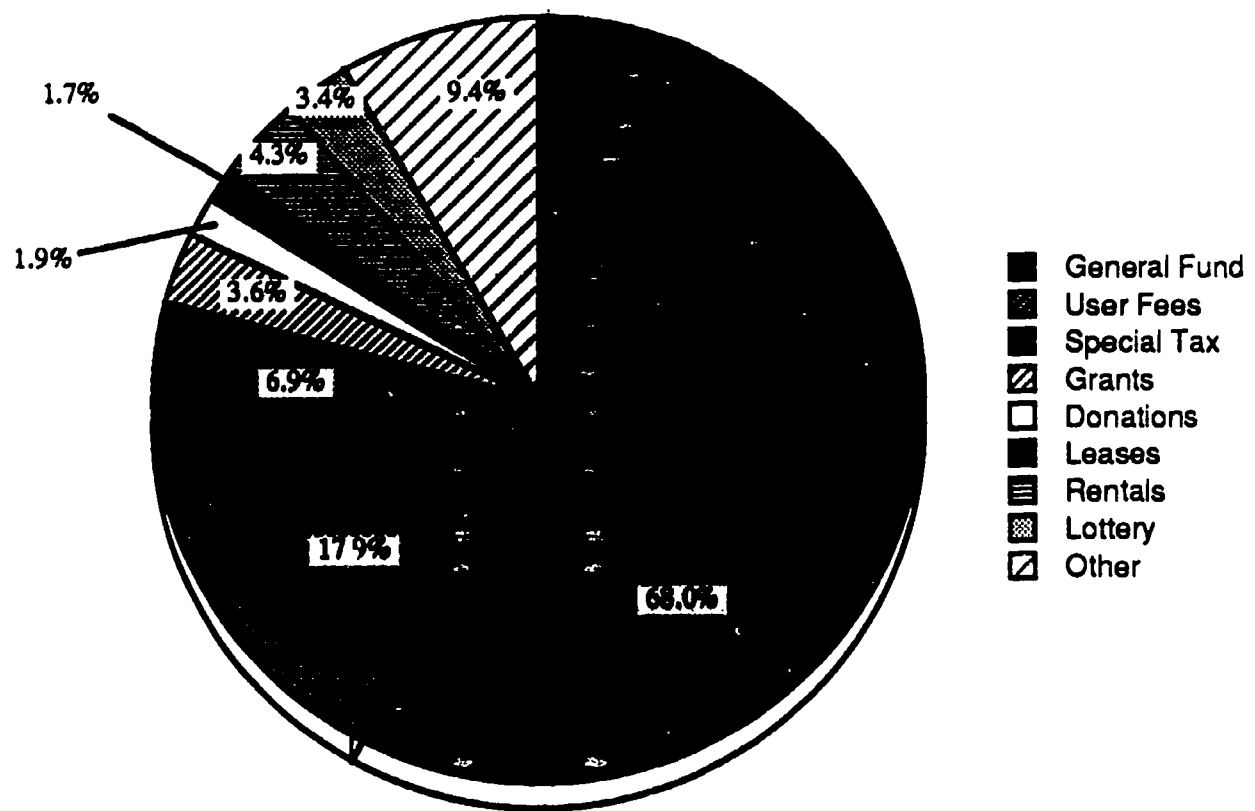
CONCLUSIONS

Do Good Ol' Boys really run the show? No. Findings from this research create a different profile than the common stereotype. Directors of municipal park and recreation departments in large western cities are, on average, much younger and more educated than originally perceived. This does not mean that the executives of the profession represent a cross section of the population. Rather, a predominantly Anglo, male leadership is revealed in the western United States. In addition, this more accurate profile indicates an experienced executive who is a member of both national and state professional associations. While these findings are encouraging, a comparison of the western regional profile to national level data is presented in order to examine how cities in the west compare to cities in the regions of the United States.

Directors of park and recreation departments in large cities in the United States are overwhelmingly male. It is a profession which has over 90 percent of its urban executive positions filled by men. This bias is even more pronounced in the west, where 93 percent of the directors are male. This same upward bias holds true for ethnicity. National data indicate 85 percent of the urban directors are Anglo, while regional data for the west indicate 92 percent of all urban directors are Anglo. The encouraging news is that directors in the west are slightly more experienced (21 years compared to the national average of 18 years experience), and have served in their current position longer than directors in other

Figure 1

Department Revenues By Source



regions (11 years compared to 9 years service). One way of interpreting this difference is that directors in western cities appreciate the unique quality of life found in the region and because of this, are inclined to stay at their present position rather than find another position or leave the profession for a more lucrative one outside the west. This contention is also supported by a comparison of average age of urban park and recreation directors. Western directors are older (48 years) than directors in other regions (41 years). This finding suggests satisfaction with one's discipline.

When director membership in NRPA and state professional association variables are examined, no variance exists between regional and national findings. Likewise, no significant difference exists between the west and the nation for the department title variable and the financial resources variable.

This research documents the Anglo, male bias in executive park and recreation positions. This finding is consistent with Henkel and Godbey's (1977) research that reveals men hold 95.1 percent of the chief executive office positions in urban park and recreation departments serving populations of 100,000 or more. Although this research suggests an improvement, the abysmally low percentage (9 percent) of female park and recreation directors in large cities is unacceptable. This startling finding continues to promote the "Good Ol' Boy" image even if the image is not completely accurate. The poor representation of women and ethnic minorities is further substantiated when park and recreation degree program enrollment figures are examined.

Bialeschki and McAllister (1990) compiled and compared enrollment figures from 72 park and recreation degree programs in the United States for the years 1982 and 1988, inclusive. Their results indicate females and ethnic minorities majoring in park and recreation degree programs increased at all levels since 1982, with the exception of the bachelor degree programs. Additionally, their research discovered that female students comprise the majority of students majoring in park and recreation degree programs. Their findings suggest, as the present authors have suggested, that park and recreation directors are not representative of the population at-large and they are also not representative of the student population training for careers in the profession.

The implications of the research presented in this paper for the urban park and recreation profession are varied. The good news is that large western departments are directed by dynamic and well-educated individuals. The bad news is that most of these individuals are males and consequently the inaccurate stereotype of the "Good Ol' Boy" continues to be promoted.

Educators face a difficult task and ethical dilemma. How can they continue to recruit women and minorities into their programs knowing that these groups face significant career advancement biases. Should educators be forced to disclose the probabilities of advancement for women and minority applicants? Does truth in advertising legislation pertain to colleges and universities?

Several important questions remain and these questions require future research. If women and ethnic minorities constitute the majority of students enrolled in park and recreation degree programs as majors, why are they so under-represented in executive level positions? How many women and minorities progress into middle and upper level management positions in the profession? What factors inhibit advancement for women and minorities? Can female and minority graduates of park and recreation degree programs expect a systematic bias against their advancement in large urban departments?

One limitation of survey research data is that it only allows aggregate level analysis. The authors recognize this and plan to address some of the above questions by conducting a series of intensive personal interviews of a sample of directors in the western region. In addition, women and minorities in the profession will also be interviewed. The personal interviews will assist in developing a more detailed description and profile of park and recreation department directors in large western cities.

Recommendations

In closing, several recommendations for both park and recreation practitioners and educators are provided:

1. Kraus (1990) contends the underrepresentation of women and ethnic minorities in recreation management positions is one of the most significant issues facing leisure service professionals today. Municipal and college and university park and recreation departments should work in concert to develop scholarships to attract female and ethnic minority students to educational programs and management-level internships.
2. Citizens should encourage their local governments to hire and promote women and minority park and recreation professionals.
3. All large urban bureaucracies should comply with all federal Equal Employment Opportunity Act legislation and in most cases, exceed these standards. Local quota systems may be appropriate in order to rectify past injustices.
4. Local governments should provide special financial support for all middle and upper level employees who want to join national and state professional associations. Financial aid should be provided for all managers who want to attend local, state, and national training institutes and continuing educational unit sessions.
5. All park and recreation department managers should be encouraged to obtain professional certification. Financial incentives should be provided for those employees who pass their certification requirements.

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**In-Center Hemodialysis Clients and the
Facilitation of Leisure Independence**

by

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In-Center Hemodialysis Clients and the Facilitation of Leisure Independence

At the University of Washington in Seattle in 1960 a treatment for irreversible kidney disease (also known as End-Stage Renal Disease or ESRD) was developed by Dr. Belding H. Scribner and associates. The treatment consisted of surgically connecting an artery and a vein to establish an access route to a person's circulatory system (Scribner, 1960). By means of this access, the person's circulating blood could then be cleansed by an artificial kidney machine. Four persons with ESRD were treated using this hemodialysis method in 1960 and four the next year (Hegstrom, 1962).

In the early 1960s, life-saving hemodialysis was very scarce and very costly. This often resulted in a client being chosen for treatment not only on the basis of medical suitability, but also on a select number of criteria including economic and sociological status, age, personality, etc. (Rettig & Marks, 1983). This initial selectivity ended in 1972 with the passage of Section 299I of the Social Security Amendments. Since then the federal government has been paying the majority of ESRD medical costs. Now there is virtually universal access to hemodialysis in the United States regardless of an ESRD client's socioeconomic status, age, etc. Currently there are over 90,000 individuals in this country being kept alive by hemodialysis (Newmann, 1989). The National Kidney and Urologic

Diseases Advisory Board estimates that the federal government spends nearly \$3 billion annually to provide maintenance dialysis, kidney transplant, and other treatment for persons with End-Stage Renal Disease.

Rationale

As a result of advances in medical technology and treatment procedures, survival rates for clients with ESRD have increased dramatically. With continuing new treatment approaches, such as the recent FDA-approved use of recombinant human erythropoietin to treat uremia-related anemia (Quinn-Cefaro, 1989), there has been a greater emphasis placed on psychosocial issues directly related to "living" with hemodialysis (Carosella, 1989; Jones, 1984; Levy, 1989; Lundin, 1989). Individuals receiving weekly hemodialysis treatments in the more than 1,570 dialysis centers throughout the United States are confronted by a number of similar challenges to their overall quality of life. First, most have gone through a painful and debilitating period of kidney failure. Second, they have had to adjust their weekly schedules to the modern technological miracle of life on a machine. (Most hemodialysis clients spend from three to six hours at a time on three alternate days each week attached to an artificial kidney machine.) Third, they have had to choose how best to cope not only with their dependency on a machine, but also with the extremely circumscribed food, liquid, and medication regimen that accompanies hemodialysis. (For example,

many hemodialysis clients are limited to less than 1 cup total of water/juice/coffee per day.)

Physical debilitation, disruption of normal routines, and dependency often combine to make living with hemodialysis a formidable task. According to Dr. Samuel B. Chyatte, formerly the director of Emory University's Center for Rehabilitative Medicine and himself a hemodialysis client, "In most cases, ESRD patients get well enough to take up responsibilities again. But some people enjoy being helpless. Others take advantage of their illness....The degree to which a patient with ESRD recaptures the roles that others have taken up may be considered the degree to which he is rehabilitated" (Chyatte, 1979, p. 14).

Beginning in the fall of 1987, the National Kidney Foundation of Georgia, Inc. sponsored a two-year pilot program whose main purpose was to understand and serve the recreation and leisure needs of in-center hemodialysis clients in rural southeast Georgia. The program was specifically designed to use recreation and community involvement as a way of minimizing "learned helplessness" while facilitating the establishment or re-establishment of the in-center hemodialysis client's leisure independence. The goals of the project were:

1. Assisting each client with his/her knowledge of recreation as a means for developing self-awareness, self-worth, and related participatory and decision-making skills;

2. Identifying local recreation and community involvement resources and opportunities;
3. Assisting each client with his/her exploration and acquisition of specific recreation skills; and
4. Bridging the gap between client and community --encouraging and establishing client/community involvement and mutual support through shared recreation interests and skills.

Program Description

Goal #1: Assisting each client with his/her knowledge of recreation as a means for developing self-awareness, self-worth, and related participatory and decision-making skills.

The first order of business was to have the project staff (two Certified Therapeutic Recreation Specialists and four undergraduate therapeutic recreation majors) establish a person-to person rapport with each of the 28 hemodialysis clients at the three centers initially involved in the program. The first lesson learned was just how difficult that can be at a dialysis center. On any given dialysis day some clients didn't feel well; some preferred to sleep or watch TV. Those that did feel like talking had to compete with beeping kidney machines and the necessary comings and goings of the supervisory medical staff.

Many of the in-center dialysis clients had been encouraged

by sincerely concerned, but perhaps overly-cautious, medical personnel and family members to be content with diversional recreation activities such as watching TV or listening to the radio. Involvement in more active forms of recreation, such as sports or hobbies, was often contraindicated more by stereotypical expectations than by the medical necessities associated with ESRD. In order to overcome this initial reluctance or hesitancy on the part of some of the in-center hemodialysis clients to establish or re-establish active recreation and community involvement, the project staff introduced non-passive one-to one activities. These activities were taught or introduced to the clients while they were on the dialysis machines. The clients were then encouraged to work on these activities at home during their non-dialysis days.

For example, a number of clients at one of the dialysis centers were asked to collect dried Georgia pine cones from around their homes. At the center each client was shown how to make Christmas wreaths using the pine cone petals, cardboard backing, glitter, ribbon, and glue. The clients then worked on the wreaths at home during their non-dialysis days. Some of the finished products were given as presents to family and staff. Others were used to decorate the dialysis center. Although the final products were in some cases very beautiful, this arts and crafts project was used more to "prime the pump" than as an end in itself. Many clients welcomed the chance to learn new skills and hobbies and began to ask for more projects of this type.

Goal #2: Identifying local recreation and community
involvement resources and opportunities.

The identification of local resources was divided into two parts. First the clients themselves were asked if they had had any special recreation skills or interests before the onset of ESRD that they now would be willing to try again. Many of the clients had put aside gardening, mechanics, arts and crafts, volunteer work, etc., as a result of ESRD. The project staff not only encouraged them to renew their involvement in these activities, but also asked that they share their activity skills with other clients, medical staff, and clients' family members. A list of client names, skills and interests were compiled by the project staff and printed as Part I of an in-center handout called "Leisure Lifeline."

Part II of "Leisure Lifeline" consisted of a listing of local organizations, agencies, and clubs that were willing to provide specialized services to dialysis clients or that were interested in recruiting dialysis clients as their members. Recreation departments, senior centers, county Cooperative Extension Services, regional libraries, and a number of other agencies were not aware of the existence of dialysis clients or their special needs. Once aware, however, these agencies were very willing to integrate hemodialysis clients and their families into their programs, activities, and services.

Goal #3: Assisting each client with his/her exploration
and acquisition of specific recreation skills.

Two client success stories best illustrate the project staff's efforts to meet Goal #3. One involved a client in his early twenties who had dropped out of high school when his ESRD first began. After a few months of encouragement from the project staff, this in-center hemodialysis client began his GED studies. Also with some encouragement from the project staff, as well as from the staff of the local recreation department, he became involved with a men's basketball league team. (Playing his favorite sport of basketball was something he also quit when he began dialysis.) He's now back on the courts and doing quite well. He has learned to pace himself and gradually increase his stamina. He has also expressed an interest in becoming involved in a youth sports training program and then coaching for one of the boys' and/or girls' league teams.

The second success story involved a 57 year old client who expressed an interest in walking for exercise. To encourage his interest in walking, a large map of Georgia was posted in the dialysis center. Each time he completed two miles a gold star was placed on the map. He has continued his walking program on his own, and according to the stars on the map next to his dialysis machine, he has hiked from Statesboro, Georgia, to Atlanta, over to Augusta, back home to Statesboro, and is now halfway to the Georgia-Florida line via historic U.S. 301.

Goal #4: Bridging the gap between client and community--
encouraging and establishing client/community
involvement and mutual support through shared
recreation interests and skills.

For the project staff, this goal included "doing themselves out of a job." This at first seemed a bit radical, but it forced the project staff to overcome the tendency to become in-center activity leaders instead of leisure independence facilitators. The implementation of Goal #4 kept the project staff focused on the need for developing community resource awareness, exploration, and network utilization. As stated previously, many local organizations and agencies were not aware of the existence of dialysis clients or their special needs. Also, many of the rural in-center hemodialysis clients were not aware of local recreation and community opportunities, didn't know how to become involved, or were simply afraid to try them out on their own. The challenge for the project staff was to bridge the gap by becoming "matchmakers."

For example, a 64 year old client, who had been on dialysis for 12 years, knew about the senior citizens program in her community but had been afraid to try it out on her own. The project staff contacted the senior center staff, explained the project's purpose, and volunteered to go with the dialysis client to the senior center the first couple of times. Project staff provided encouragement and moral support while the senior center staff made all the necessary transportation and program

arrangements. The result was that the client began attending on her own every Tuesday and Thursday, her non-dialysis days. She joined the Golden Agers String Band, learned how to make yarn dogs for fun and profit, and developed a reputation for being one of the senior center's more shrewd and artful bingo players. This particular client even helped to make a promotional video tape in which she enthusiastically encourages her older adult dialysis peers "to get out and get involved."

Program Evaluation

During the first three weeks of the project, a series of assessments were administered to each of the in-center hemodialysis clients including 24 hour activity/time diaries (Robinson, 1977), the Leisure Diagnostic Battery (Witt & Ellis, 1987), and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965). Many of the clients had difficulty with reading and writing, and were not comfortable with the language used on the standardized assessment instruments. Simple adaptations of the assessment instruments resulted in better communication and mutual understanding. For example, the Tennessee Self Concept Scale's categorical response "completely true" became a large smiley face and "mostly true" became a smaller smiley face.

Although assessment data was initially collected on all 28 clients, follow-up assessments on individual clients were not always possible. The in-center hemodialysis population is a very unstable population due to factors such as illness,

hospitalization, transfer to other centers, transplantation, and death. Pretest and six month follow-up post test evaluations were completed on ten clients using the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. Project staff were also able to complete pretest and eight month follow-up post test evaluations on six clients using the Leisure Diagnostic Battery.

Of the ten clients in the project that were able to provide pretest and six month follow-up post test scores on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, four participated in recreation activities only while at the dialysis center, whereas the other six participated in recreation activities at the dialysis center and in the community during their non-dialysis days. A correlated means t -test (Borg, 1987) was used to compare the data from the in-center-only group with that from the in-center-and-community group. Results indicated statistical significance at the .25 level.

In-center-only group:	pretest mean	= 348.75
	s.d.	= 26.81
	post test mean	= 338.75
	s.d.	= 57.03
In-center-and-community group:	pretest mean	= 350.33
	s.d.	= 42.46
	post test mean	= 351.83
	s.d.	= 41.14

The t -value for the correlated means test was .8039 with 8 degrees of freedom which exceeded the critical t value of .7060

for a two-tailed .25 level of significance. In other words, among this particular group of ESRD clients, those that became involved during the first six months of the project in recreation activities while at the dialysis center and in the community during their non-dialysis days scored more positively (higher) on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale than those clients who chose to participate only in in-center recreation activities (Sweat, 1987).

Eight month follow-up results on six clients using the Leisure Diagnostic Battery were also limited but equally encouraging. The six individuals were given the Leisure Diagnostic Battery before becoming involved in the program (pretest mean = 3.84; s.d. = .5426). After eight months of active participation in in-center as well as community recreation activities, their scores on the Leisure Diagnostic Battery had improved (post test mean = 4.13; s.d. = .4437). A related samples t -test indicated statistical significance at the .05 level (t -value = 2.2338, df = 5; critical t = 2.0150 at the .05 level of significance).

Concluding Remarks

The author Robert Louis Stevenson once wrote that, "Life is not a matter of holding good cards, but playing a poor hand well." Hemodialysis is currently saving the lives of more than 90,000 ESRD clients, but at a high price both in economic terms and in quality of life. While medical technology continues to

add years to our lives, we must find ways of insuring an acceptable quality of those years. Facilitating leisure independence is not a panacea for magically eliminating the discomforts of living with hemodialysis. However the results of this pilot program appear to indicate that involvement in recreation and community activities has a significant potential for maintaining and maximizing quality living for in-center hemodialysis clients.

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A Projection of Range Protocol for Measuring Economic Influence

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ABSTRACT

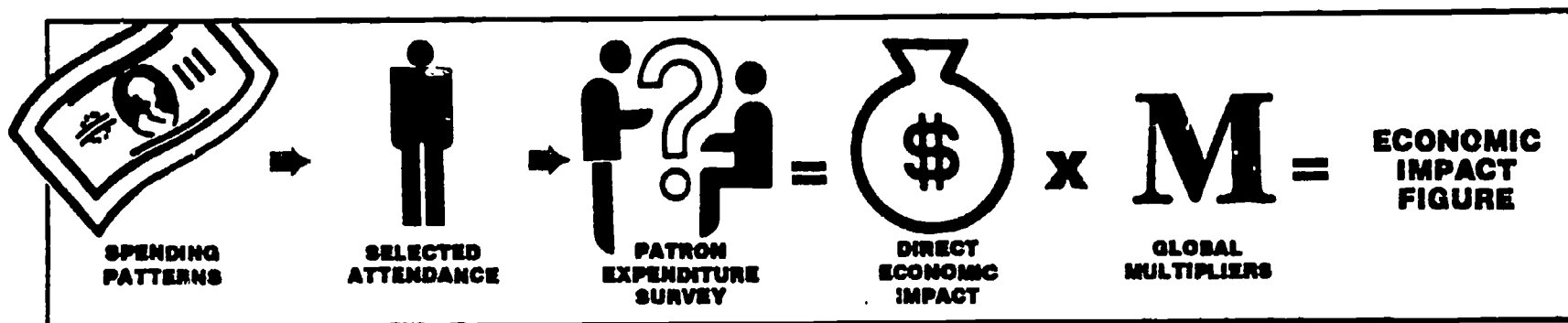
Measuring the economic impact of parks and recreation services, particularly special events has been plagued by several methodological issues which recent research has attempted to resolve. Springing out of these studies has been a more sensitive model of projecting a range of economic influence rather than attempting to determine specific economic impact. This model, called PROJECTION OF RANGE PROTOCOL, is under extensive study at the University of New Mexico, but preliminary indicators suggest that the model produces heightened credibility and perhaps a more realistic picture of economic influence.

INTRODUCTION

Different sectors of the parks and recreation profession have relied on economic impact studies to varying degrees with tourism research and natural resource planning extensive users. Public parks and recreation, once removed from such concerns, now find these efforts not only useful but essential. The issue is not the need or justification for such studies but the correct methodology of performing the study. The traditional study method, though accurate for the methods used, has had a tendency to overstate the impact and this positive picture has caused some questions of credibility with decision makers. As time and experience have improved the testing methods, a more sensitive approach has emerged that still measures economic impact but attempts to reduce some of the built in over estimates of the traditional model.

Economic Impact Studies: The Traditional Model

The traditional economic impact study model has followed a sequence of logical steps in an effort to measure spending (see Figure 1). The spending patterns of selected event attendees as detailed by a patron survey is totalled to equal direct impact. This figure is then multiplied by a global multiplier (to calculate the recirculation of spending in the community) to create indirect impact. With direct and indirect impacts added together, a very handsome economic influence is concluded.

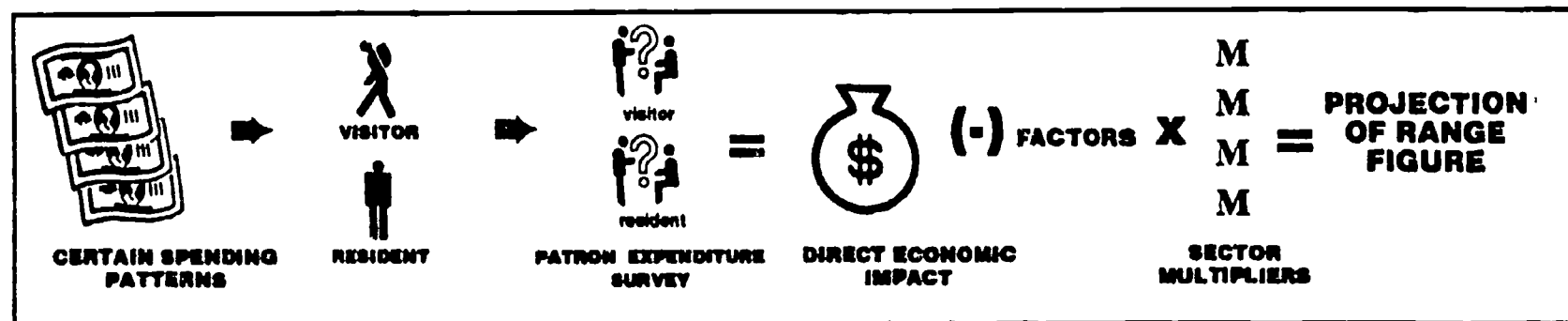


Generally this figure has over calculated the real influence of the parks and recreation event, but the traditional model remains in favor because the methodology is easy and the results are so encouraging for the agency.

Projection of Range Protocol: A Model of Sensitivity

The projection of range protocol attempts to more accurately measure the economic influence of parks and recreation events by adjusting the study methodology for more sensitivity to certain key elements. The basic theory of this protocol is to provide a range of economic influence rather than to determine specific economic impact. The former is more general and conservative while the latter is more specific but tends to be liberal. Additionally, the former attempts to reduce the impact figure by over estimation errors and the latter stands firm on its calculation assumptions. For example: (See Figure 2)

The spending patterns that relate specifically to the parks and recreation special event are measured and those patterns are measured differently for the resident attendee compared to the visitor attendee who is in the local community specifically due to the event as opposed to the resident that may or may not have attended the event otherwise. When this direct economic impact figure is calculated, that figure is adjusted by several key factors that have critical impact on the measurement.



The adjusted figure is then multiplied by the sector multiplier rather than globally. Additionally, the figure is stated in a projection of range influence term rather than as an economic impact figure.

Primary versus Secondary Data Measures

The first phase of the projection of range protocol is to determine if the expenditure data is to be gathered from primary or secondary data sources. Primary data sources consist of directly contacting those individuals that expend money at the parks and recreation event. The three (3) primary data gathering methods are:

METHOD	STYLE	POSITIVE(S)	NEGATIVE(S)
1. DIRECT INTERVIEW	1. ONSITE: The patron is interviewed while they are experiencing the event. 2. EXIT: The patron is interviewed as they depart the event.	Easy to administer and control the subject group.	The patron must either reflect or project the spending.
2. DIARY	The patron maintains an expenditure diary recording the dollars spent as they occur.	Very accurate and detailed.	Tends to alter spending patterns and requires dedicated respondent.
3. MAIL SURVEY	The patron completes a mail survey after the event and reflects back on the expenditures and perhaps tallies receipts.	very accurate	low return rate

The secondary data gathering methods consist of collecting and analyzing sources of information that does not inquire the patron. The most common secondary sources are:

METHOD	POSITIVE(S)	NEGATIVE(S)
1 event financial records	accurate, if detailed	limited information not sensitive to out-of-house dollars
2 records from government tax division	indicates shifts in local expenditures	only calculates taxable expenditures
3 government accounting office	a source of expert information	usually too general for use of the study
4 business sector survey(s)	most accurate data; before during, after, event measures	usually business sector will not share information

Expenditure Instrumentation Determinants

The second major task is to determine the specific information desired from either the primary or secondary source. What expenditure information is desired (hotels, air transportation, retail sales, alcoholic beverages, etc.) and important to the study. In some studies only "at event" expenditures are calculated while other studies are concerned with items of total community impact. Based upon the comprehensiveness of the study certain items of inquiry will either be assessed or excluded from the study.

Calculation of Sensitivity

A third major concern is to apply certain sensitivity calculation techniques to the information collected by the data gathering method. Seven (7) factors needed to be applied to adjust for complete accuracy are as follows:

ADJUSTMENT FACTOR	CALCULATION METHOD
1 non-response bias	If less than 80% of the patrons selected for assessment responded then a random sample of the 20% of non-respondants must be conducted to determine if there is a significant difference in response. Perhaps patrons who refused to participate did so because they did not want to share large expenditures.

2 recall and projection bias

When patrons are assessed expenditure information there will be some inaccuracy in their responses because they need to either reflect back (recall) or project forward (projection) their expenditures. The solution to these biases is the use of a spending diary, but that method induces additional problems. The study should state the range of impact due to these biases rather than stating a specific impact figure.

3 adjusting the mean (x) expenditure for skewness

When the average (mean) expenditure for all patrons is based on all expenditures, this figure will be artificially high if extreme expenditures that are not reflective of the event are not removed. (A patron purchases a \$40,000 tractor while attending a rural community agriculture fair where the tractor is on display. Most other patron expenditures are for food and souvenir items.)

4 economic gains minus economic costs

The direct and hidden costs for putting the event together should be deducted from the total impact figure. If a city hosts a major event, such cost factors as additional city police, fire, emergency medical, trash collection services that the city would not have used otherwise, should not be ignored in economic costs calculations.

5 primary cause of expenditure

The patron that attends the event (both visitor and resident) may have spent money in the local community anyway. To attribute the expenditures as new money spent only because of the event may not be accurate. The solution is to calculate the expenditures that were made only as a direct result of the event.

6 leakage effect	Some of the money spent at the event goes to vendors that are not from the local community and they leave the event at its conclusion or do not spend the money in the community. Therefore this money leaks out of the community and has no impact. To determine potential leakage an assessment of vendors at the event should be calculated.
7 switching effect	Some of the money spent at the event would have been spent in the community anyway, but the patron chose to switch (VCR tape rental to event T-shirt) from other community options to the event. Therefore, the money is not new but switched. One way to determine switched dollars is to ask the patron what percent of dollars spent at the event would have been spent in the community anyway.

Economic Multiplier Effects

The forth element of the projection of range protocol is to select the appropriate multiplier process. A multiplier is based on the theory that spending in an area does not stop as soon as the money is spent. A portion of these dollars recirculates through the local economy before slowly leaving the community to pay for basic purchases and supplies elsewhere. That portion of the respending that stays with the community is the multiplier effect. An example of the multiplier effect is as follows: \$100 is spent at an event, 20% of the money spent at the event eventually remains in the community (this percent is called the marginal propensity to consume and is different for each community - usually the larger the community the higher the percentage), 80% of the initial spending leaves the community to pay for basic services and purchases needed by the community residents. A multiplier is calculated as 1.25 (1.0 divided by .80). Twenty percent of the amount recirculates throughout the community seven times before the cycle is complete. Therefore, the multiplier effect on \$100 results in an additional \$25 in spending.

Round	Dollars
direct spending	\$100.00
2	20.00
3	4.00
4	.80
5	.16
6	.032
7	.0064
total impact	\$124.9984

There are six types of multipliers available for use. The event should choose that multiplier that best reflects its needs for accuracy.

TYPE OF MULTIPLIER		DESCRIPTION
1	Output estimates	A method to calculate the amount of full time employment that is generated by an increase in the local economy (usually through sales).
2	Input-output estimates	A method that calculates the shifting of money from one business sector in a community to another based on the type of activities of an event. (Hotel rooms purchased will impact ground transportation more than retail clothing sales.
3	Regional Industrial Multiplier System (RIMS)	A method developed by the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis for estimating required input-output multipliers.
4	Regional Input-Output Modeling System II (RIMS II)	A method using national input-output tables calculated from 500 U.S. industries and the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) of county wage and salary data.
5	Travel Economic Impact Model (TEIM)	A model based on 18 types of travel expenditures, their impacts on 14 types of travel related businesses at the retail level generating business receipts, employment, payroll and tax receipts.
6	Impact Analysis for PLAnning (IMPLAN)	A model that calculates by county and states the output sales, income earned and employment expected as a result of new spending (input).

**GUIDELINES FOR ACTIVITIES PLANNING
FOR PERSONS WITH ALZHEIMER'S DISEASE**

WRITTEN BY MARY NOVOTNY

August 3, 1990

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communication skills, and a bedridden patient lying in a fetal position. The middle stage, or stages, is when the disease is usually diagnosed and when the therapeutic recreation specialist is most likely to come in contact with AD patient. Table I describes the AD patient according to the therapists model (Glickstein, 26-28).

TABLE I
FEATURES OF THE MIDDLE STAGES ALZHEIMER'S DISEASE

GENERAL FEATURES	SYMPTOMS	LANGUAGE
loss of social ability, difficulties with ADLs, appearance of seizures	progressive memory loss, hallucinations, hostility, paranoia, wandering, excessive passivity, sudden mood swings	increased anomia,* apraxia, agnosia, paraphrasia, lateral interpretation of all stimuli, impaired writing and # concepts, decreased comprehension
progressive loss of mental ability, flat affect, change in gait	seizures, hyper- of hypo-activity, incontinence, feeding problems	echolalia, slurred speech, meaningless utterances, inability to interpret visual stimulus, delayed response, poor engagement and attention

* Definition of language terms

anomia - inability to recall the word of name of something

apraxia - inability to perform sequential voluntary movements

agnosia - inability to recognize an object, a sensory or perceptual disorder

paraphrasia - using an inappropriate word substitution

echolalia - repeating the words or phrases of another speaker

Only a few of the common activities used by the therapeutic recreation profession and others working with AD have received any research attention. These include reality orientation, reminiscing therapy, and remotivation.

REALITY ORIENTATION

Reality orientation (RO) is a technique developed by Lucille Taulbee in 1965 while she was working as a geriatric supervisor in a VA hospital. It has been used extensively with elderly populations in a variety of settings since then, especially in nursing homes (Burnside, 207). Reality orientation is a method of presenting, repeating, and reinforcing facts about person, time, and place. It is the cornerstone for treating dementia (Reisburg, 443).

There are two basic methods of RO: "classroom" RO (CRO) and "informal" or 24-hour RO (IRO). CRO is conducted in a small group, with four to six disoriented patients in a formal group for approximately 30 minutes. The leader presents the group with information about the names of the people in the group, the date, season, weather, the name of the institution, and the next meal (Burnside, 208). Clocks, calendars, and blackboards are often used in classroom RO. CRO was intended by the originator to be used for a two month period and ended if the individual did not make noticeable progress in the period. "Informal" or 24-hour RO (IRO) reinforces the realities of the patient's situation during the staff's usual contact with the patient. For example, a nursing assistant might deal with the patient who is about to receive a bath with "Good morning, Mrs. Smith. It's Tuesday at 7:00 a.m. and it's time for you to take your bath."

The therapy has been extensively researched with varying results and conclusions by researchers, and much criticism about the methodology of the research. Citrin and Dixon (1977) found in a study involving a small number of patients that those receiving both informal RO and classroom RO scored significantly better on measures of orientation to time, place, and person. However, the experimental group did not score significantly better in behaviors needed for caring for their basic grooming needs (Citrin, 42).

Reives and Ivison (1985) found that a small group of five patients receiving both informal RO and classroom RO for eight weeks, when compared with a control group not receiving any form of RO, did significantly better on cognitive and behavior measures. Another group that discontinued CRO after four weeks did not maintain their advantage over the control group (Reives, 120). McDonald and Settin (1978) found that patients receiving RO got bored and were more unhappy than patients not receiving RO. They concluded that a sheltered workshop was more effective than a combination of RO and remotivation in terms of measures of patient life satisfaction (Swenk, 376).

In defense of the originator, Taulbec claims she never meant for RO to be a rote recitation of date, month, and other information, but a technique that offered variety and choice for a period of two months (Burnside, 215). Many professionals have criticized RO research as conducted with too small a sample and poorly designed in terms of diagnosis of the sample and control of independent variables to conclude that it is effective with the AD population. The results of the research are inconclusive regarding its effectiveness with AD patients.

REMINISCING THERAPY

Reminiscing is a recreation technique formalized in 1970 by Priscilla Ebersole, a psychiatric nurse. It is based on Dr. Robert Butler's work on life review. (Dr. Robert Butler is a noted gerontologist, psychiatrist, and advocate for the elderly.) It consists of encouraging and enabling a small group of six to nine members to recall memories (happy, sad, serious, flippant) of events from all stages of life (Burnside, 11&12). Advocates say that reminiscing provides social interaction, promotes a sense of identification or bonding with peers, promotes recognition of individual accomplishments, and increases respect and self-esteem (Beisgen, 100). It also draws upon the remaining memory strengths of the AD patient. Reminiscing is a therapy that requires long-term memory, which appears to remain intact longer than short-term memory (ADRDA Newsletter, 6).

Research by Goldwasser, Auerbach, and Harkin (1987) concluded that reminiscing therapy improved mood and alertness when done in group settings on a regular, weekly, and continuing basis (Goldwasser, 92). Other research has reached similar conclusions but not necessarily with AD subjects. Continuing research is necessary with AD subjects. Continuing research is necessary concerning using reminiscing therapy with AD patients. Reminiscing will work with the AD patient only as long as he continues to be fluent in expressive and receptive language. Limited attention spans also may make reminiscing difficult.

REMOTIVATION THERAPY

Remotivation therapy is a group technique used to stimulate individuals who are confused, withdrawn, and unmotivated to bring them back to a sense of reality. It was devised by Dorothy Haskins Smith in 1949 while she was serving as a volunteer in hospital recreation (Beisgen,

95). Designed originally for use with the mentally ill, it has been used extensively with geriatric populations. Remotivation is done in groups of 5 to 15 patients, once or twice per week for periods of 30 minutes to one hour; the five-step process is outlined below.

THE FIVE STEPS OF REMOTIVATION THERAPY (Beisgen, 96)

1. Create a climate of acceptance (3-5 minutes): group members are welcomed and greeted individually by name; name tags are recommended.
2. Create a bridge to reality (5-10 minutes): the leader asks a series of interest-getting questions designed to lead into the day's topic, or she may use a poem, verse or quote.
3. Share the world we live in (15-20 minutes): the leader asks questions and encourages participation, possibly using props and encouraging touching.
4. Appreciate the world of work (15-20 minutes): participants are asked to share information and think about how work relates to themselves.
5. Create a climate of appreciation (3-5 minutes): the leader summarizes what was shared and learned and invites the group back. The leader asks for suggestions for topics, and perhaps, requests participants to bring an object to the next session.

There have been a number of research efforts conducted to assess the effectiveness and uses of remotivation therapy. Birkett and Boltuck (1973) compared the effects of remotivation and psychoanalytic group therapy on 39 geriatric patients in a mental institution. They found no significant group difference in outcomes but responses dealing with interest, awareness, participation and comprehension were more evident in the remotivation group (Burnside, 212). J.S. Bovey (1971) found

remotivation significantly more effective than reading to psychiatric patients in increasing self-concept (Burnside, 221). Dennis (1976) reported that subjects in a psychiatric setting receiving remotivation therapy were significantly more depressed than an extra attention control group. She concluded that this was a positive outcome as remotivation served to motivate the patients to benefit from other therapies to regain their independence and previous interests (Burnside, 222).

Remotivation's critics feel that several of the steps are not appropriate for geriatric populations, particularly step 4 that deals with work. Some leaders ask participants to read selections at step 2, which is not practical when working with individuals who have great difficulty with reading. It may be advisable to modify remotivation when dealing with AD patients.

OTHER RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES USED WITH AD PATIENTS

Unfortunately, there is little research beyond reality orientation, remotivation, and reminiscing to help the therapeutic recreation specialist plan appropriate recreation for the AD population. In the absence of research, care planning must take account of the AD patient's impairments and features and match them with the requirements of various activities. According to 1986 research involving assessment tools at the northern California Alzheimer's unit, the most common impairments were in fine motor skill, memory, recognition, and orientation. The areas of most independent functioning were in communication, ambulation, and transfer (Doyle, 22). Nancy Mace, author of The Thirty Six-Hour Day and articles on caring for the AD patient, offers some additional guidance. She states that

"the goals of activities for people with dementia differ from goals of other therapies. The goal is not to restore function, improve muscle tone or eye/hand coordination . . . the goals of the activities program are to create immediate pleasure, restore dignity, provide meaningful tasks, restore roles, and enable friendships" (Mace, 13). With these criteria in mind, the author will make some judgments regarding the suitability of exercise, cooking, music, gardening, and arts and crafts.

EXERCISE

Exercise is a common activity in nursing homes and adult day care programs serving AD populations. Exercise often consists of range of motion exercises that are non-aerobic and can be done by patients in wheelchairs. AD patients are generally ambulatory at this stage and are capable of large muscle activity as well. The AD patients often have difficulty following verbal instructions and mimicking mirror images. This may be managed by providing instructions that are linked to old, familiar activities, such as "reach for the high shelf, rock the baby, touch your toes, swim" (Mace, 20).

Because wandering and pacing are common activities of mid-stage AD patients, planned walking may be used to capitalize on the AD patients' need to move. Walking and exercise may serve as outlets for the nervous energy the patients exhibit. Mace suggests those activities, plus active games, sweeping vacuuming, dancing, and stacking chairs to deal with wandering and sleep disorders common to this group (Mace, 22). Walking and large motor exercises also may help prevent constipation and bowel incontinence (Jarvik, 33) and can increase lung capacity to lessen the chance of pneumonia, the leading cause of death for the AD patient (Miller, 24). Therefore, it appears there is ample justification for including

exercises that involve large muscle movement rather than range of motion exercises and planned walking in recreation programs for the AD patient.

COOKING

Cooking is another activity used with AD patients. It is sometimes difficult because of special equipment and facility requirements. There are also safety considerations involved, such as a patient getting cut with knives or burned at a stove. Some programs solve these problems by avoiding hazardous equipment and letting their patients make peanut butter sandwiches, chop soft fruit and vegetable with plastic knives, and crank homemade ice cream.

Cooking is an activity that reestablishes old roles, has purpose, restores a sense of normal functioning, gives pleasure, provides opportunities to socialize, and uses repetitive motion (Mace, 15&21). Those ends satisfy Mace's criteria as appropriate goals for the AD patient and make cooking a suitable activity with AD groups.

MUSIC

Music is the most common answer of activity coordinators to the question of what activity is most effective with AD patients. The literature is filled with recommendations for using music with AD patients. The Veterans' Administration recommends using music as a means of distracting an agitated AD patient (Evans, Aggressive and Violent Behavior). Symphonic and string music have a calming effect on AD patients, according to Veterans Administration authors (Evans, Aggressive and Violent Behavior). The Alzheimer's Disease and Related Disorders Association recommends music, sing-alongs, and using rhythm instruments in its activity suggestions (Alzheimer's, 0-4H/686). According to Beverly Beisgen (1989) in her book Life-Enhancing Activities for

Mentally Impaired Elders, music is one of the last skills lost. The part of the brain where music resides is often the last to deteriorate (Beisgen, 120). Some patients who suffer from multiinfarct demetia (caused by a series of small strokes) and have lost their ability to speak, can still sing. This suggests that speech and singing are located in different places of the brain (Burnside, 266). The AD patient may be able to sing longer than he can make intelligent conversation. In addition, people sing in various roles throughout their lives, such as in church, at school, in clubs, and around campfires. Music may be associated with pleasure, former roles, can lead to socialization, and often is linked to reminiscing. It would appear that music is an appropriate form of recreation to use with this group.

GARDENING

In a study done for the National Council on Aging, the elderly ranked gardening as the number one physical activity of choice (Beisgen, 190). Another study (Shary, 1989) used plant care to provide a sense of control and responsibility to nursing home residents. It concluded that nursing home residents who were given a choice to care for a plant did significantly better on measures of self-esteem and confidence than the control group who were given a plant that was cared for by the staff (Shary, 13). Beverly Beisgen advocates gardening for its sensory stimulation value-visual, tactile, and olfactory (Beisgen, 190). It could be concluded from those studies that gardening could serve to restore former roles, provide pleasure, and restore a sense of normal functioning. Gardening would appear to be an appropriate activity for AD patients.

ARTS AND CRAFTS

Classified ads for activity coordinators often advertise that the employment candidate should have skills to lead a successful arts and

crafts program. Administrators and other non-recreation staff appear to feel that an arts and crafts program is a necessary part of a nursing home recreation program. There is evidence that the AD patients' difficulties with fine motor skills, impairments in voluntary motor skills involving sequencing, and tendency to perceive their environment only linearly, make it hard for them to participate successfully in many craft projects (Doyle, 22). Even when the therapeutic recreation specialist is not product-oriented, often the participants become frustrated at their apparent lack of achievement. Nancy Mace advises recreation specialists not to depend on crafts with AD patients because crafts are too cognitive and require fine motor skills that they don't possess (Mace, 25). Another problem she identifies is the necessity that the activity be seen as purposeful by the participant.

It is possible to select purposeful crafts that support former roles and allow repetitive movements without requiring fine motor skills. I have had some success with bead and cranberry stringing, making gumdrop wreaths as Christmas decorations for their rooms, and pillow stuffing to sell at a bazaar to pay for their lunches. Beverly Beisgen advises to keep the crafts easy and failure free: do crafts in a small group, give instructions one step at a time, put items out one at a time, keep the activity short, remind them of the purpose often, and show the finished product (Beisgen, 81). She recommends sensory stimulation, music and physical exercise for more confused AD patients (Beisgen, 82). It appears crafts projects require many functions that AD patients lack and should be carefully evaluated in terms of the benefit to the patients.

CONCLUSION

The AD patient lives an average of seven years after the date of diagnosis with this progressive, degenerative, and fatal brain disorder. It robs the patient of his memory, his intellect, his dignity, and his life. The therapeutic recreation specialist must be prepared to deal with the bizarre behaviors with a recreation program that will restore dignity and roles, give pleasure, and provide an opportunity for relationships.

Reality orientation, reminiscing, and remotivation are all currently used with the AD population. These activities are the most researched, but more is needed. Research efforts must begin on other forms of recreation that commonly are used with AD patients as well - exercise, cooking, music, gardening, and arts and crafts.

The next millennium may find the answers to the cause(s) and cure(s) for Alzheimer's disease. Meanwhile, the therapeutic recreation professional must keep abreast of the literature, begin the research, and write the care plans that will serve the AD patient.

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TABLE I
FEATURES OF THE MIDDLE STAGES ALZHEIMER'S DISEASE

GENERAL FEATURES	SYMPTOMS	LANGUAGE
loss of social ability, difficulties with ADLs, appearance of seizures	progressive memory loss, hallucinations, hostility, paranoia, wandering, excessive passivity, sudden mood swings	increased anomia,* apraxia, agnosia, paraphrasia, lateral interpretation of all stimuli, impaired writing and # concepts, decreased comprehension
progressive loss of mental ability, flat affect, change in gait	seizures, hyper- of hypo-activity, incontinence, feeding problems	echolalia, slurred speech, meaningless utterances, inability to interpret visual stimulus, delayed response, poor engagement and attention

*** Definition of language terms**

anomia - inability to recall the word or name of something

apraxia - inability to perform sequential voluntary movements

agnosia - inability to recognize an object, a sensory or perceptual disorder

paraphrasia - using an inappropriate word substitution

echolalia - repeating the words or phrases of another speaker

COMMITMENT AND RECREATIONAL SPORTS PARTICIPATION

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COMMITMENT AND RECREATIONAL SPORTS PARTICIPATION

Participation in leisure activities has risen steadily over the past several decades. Participants in leisure and recreation programs continually demand bigger and better programs. Within various programs, there are often high turnover and dropout rates. Very little is known about why some people continue to participate while others do not (Backman & Crompton, 1990). This poses a substantial problem for the recreation provider who is faced with the difficult task of planning and implementing programs that will enhance the participant's experience and ensure his/her continued participation.

Commitment is a term often associated with ongoing participation in an activity. Participants who are committed to a recreational activity or program are more likely to continue their involvement. This paper will discuss some of the elements of commitment and how recreation practitioners might use them to increase participant commitment.

Self-Expression and identification with the sport program are commonly associated with commitment. A number of participants find that recreational activities such as running and racquetball provide them with a means to express themselves (Spreitzer and Snyder, 1983). The depth, intensity, and continuity of the identity invested in an activity reflects the level of commitment (Snyder,

1983). Others have indicated that identification with an activity is a major element of commitment (Buchanan, 1985; Yair, 1990).

Social Support is one of the principal reasons that commitment to physical activity as a lifelong involvement occurs. A feeling of sociability and companionship that extends beyond participation in the activity often develops between the sport participants (Snyder & Spreitzer, 1979). In a study of adult competitors in racquetball and running, Spreitzer and Snyder (1983) found that 76% of the runners and 91% of the racquetball players agreed that sports are a way of getting together with friends and having a good time. In fact, many committed runners discover that all their friends are runners. Their involvement with running increases as they become active in organizing and planning races with running companions. They serve as timers, directors and coordinators for the race calendar, debate the scheduling of distances, and help with annual banquets (Nash, 1979). As a consequence of the satisfactions that people receive from social attachments, mutual esteem, and companionship, it appears that social support is primary in many people's continued involvement (Buchanan, 1985; Robbins & Joseph, 1980; & Snyder 1983).

Intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction play a role in determining commitment. Intrinsic satisfaction refers to the sheer inner enjoyment, ecstasy, pleasure, and the fun of physical exertion that stems from participation in competitive sports, and a sense of competence in performance. These positive feelings affect levels of commitment in participants (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Deci, 1973). Intrinsic satisfaction may be of particular importance to players with less skill who are not likely to receive much extrinsic satisfaction.

Extrinsic satisfaction refers to the competition for victories, trophies, recognition, prestige, awards, favors, and other ego-gratifying outcomes associated with successful athletic performance (Snyder, 1983; Yair, 1990). Snyder suggests that extrinsic satisfaction is central to the sport role and that if performances are unsuccessful, dissatisfaction and discontinuance may result. This suggestion is supported by Rees, Andres, and Howell (1986) in their survey of runners. Their results imply that extrinsic orientation may be an important component of commitment as it applies to running. Participants who take a more serious stance toward the importance of winning tend to have a greater investment of identity and commitment to the sport role (Snyder, 1983).

Skill Level is a major determinant of adult participation in sports. Most people who are committed to active sports participation have a relatively high level of skill. Generally, people do not enjoy activities at which they feel incompetent. If unskilled adults are to be encouraged to engage in athletic endeavors, programs which teach skills and encourage participation based on the pure fun and enjoyment of the activity itself are needed (Snyder & Spreitzer, 1979).

The recreation provider who is aware of how these elements affect participation is able to implement them in program design. The next section will focus on some suggestions for program implementation.

Program Elements to Enhance Commitment

Program ownership indicates that the participant feels an attachment to and identification with the program. There is a sense of pride in participation and being recognized as part of the program. Participants who feel that their identity is expressed through a particular sport will be more committed to continued participation. In order to increase opportunities for participants to express their identity with a program, the recreation practitioner may want to make program items available such as t-shirts, caps, and bumper stickers. These items serve a dual

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purpose in that they enable the wearer to proclaim identification with the program, and at the same time, provide additional exposure for the program.

Participants with a feeling of ownership for a program are more likely to continue their involvement. Participants can be encouraged to develop ownership by serving on committees or assisting with tournaments and social functions. This involvement helps individuals feel that they are important to the organization and that they are helping to shape the program. Investment of time and energy will result in increased commitment. It is important to strike a balance between involving participants in planning and demanding too much of them. If participants feel that the whole weight of the program is on them, they may become overwhelmed and drop out altogether. Spread the load so that many people are able to feel ownership in the program. Although it is important to involve participants, the ultimate responsibility for program administration and control must remain with the program director.

Social interaction is one of the major reasons people participate in recreational activities. As a result, it is important to provide opportunities for participants to meet and socialize with each other. This is particularly

important for individual sports such as tennis and swimming where individuals may become involved in the program without knowing anyone else. Each member needs to feel included in the group.

There are many ways to implement social activities in the sports program. A simple activity might be that each participant brings a container of ice cream to share with everyone following a tournament or other competition. More involved activities might include an end-of-the-season barbeque, banquet, or lake party. Social activities that stem from participation in the program may also be attractive to members. A tennis league might enjoy receiving group rates and trip planning for a ski trip or to a tennis tournament. This is an area where members can be encouraged to become involved in planning.

Skill level is a major determinant of commitment because people enjoy winning. If they perceive that they have little or no chance of success, they are unlikely to participate. Create divisions within the sports program based on skill level and add or delete divisions as necessary. Create enough divisions to satisfy the ability range of all participants in the program. It may be necessary to have skill ratings of participants confirmed by a qualified verifier to make the ratings as accurate as

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possible. Participants should be re-evaluated at the end of each season to ensure that they are in the right division.

Group and private lessons are commonly used to provide opportunities for participants to increase their skill. Clinics are growing in popularity, but must be carefully planned in order to be effective. Clinics should be designed for different levels of players as one clinic will not meet the needs of all players. A broad range clinic may leave a large number of participants dissatisfied. The lower level player may be embarrassed by his/her lack of competence, while the upper level player may be disappointed by the lack of depth. In designing and promoting a clinic, specify what skills will be addressed, and to what level of player it is directed. This will enable players to select a clinic suited to their needs and level of play. All players can enjoy and benefit from appropriately designed clinics.

Awards and recognition also play an important role in levels of commitment. People like to receive recognition for their accomplishments no matter what their level of play. Trophies, ribbons, plaques, t-shirts, caps, and equipment can help to satisfy this need. Players who are more serious about winning may expect more recognition and

prestige from their performances. It is important to provide the same type of award and recognition to lower division players. Additionally, it may be necessary to include more fun-oriented competitions for lower level players.

A trophies case or awards wall where pictures, trophies, and plaques can be displayed can also serve to provide participants with recognition for their accomplishments.

Communication with participants is important to keep them up to date on developments within the program, social activities, and clinics. A newsletter is very effective in maintaining contact with participants. Newsletters can also be used to give recognition to tournament winners and program volunteers. It is an excellent means of helping members learn more about each other and receive recognition for their accomplishments.

Program continuity plays a part in encouraging continued participation. Once the program is operating, keep it going. Often in recreation programs, there is a tendency to run eight week classes and have participants wait a week, month, or quarter before resuming classes. Many adults operate on tight schedules, and need a program they can develop a routine with. If there is a gap between

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seasons in the program, a number of participants may be lost to other programs. These individuals will be hard to bring back to your program. When possible, design sports programs with a year-round calendar and on-going registration. This may be difficult with some sports like softball whose season is dictated by weather, but it will add continuity to the program.

In conclusion, the concept of commitment does not address how or why individuals initiate recreation participation, however it does suggest reasons for consistency in behavior once it has been initiated (Buchanan, 1985). The program director who recognizes the importance of commitment in continued participation will be able to design programs to enhance continued participation. The elements of commitment that can be incorporated into program design are self-expression and identification, social support, intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction, and skill. Additionally, the recreation provider may draw comfort from the results of Lounsbury and Hoopes' (1988) study of leisure participation of community residents. Their results indicate that there is very little change in participation in any leisure activity over a five year period. This might suggest that once an individual becomes involved in a leisure activity that involvement is likely to continue for the next five years.

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**THE MENTAL, SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL BENEFITS
OF COMPUTERS IN A RECREATION PROGRAM
FOR SENIOR CITIZENS**

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**Intermountain Symposium on Parks,
Recreation and Leisure at Brigham Young University
November 1990**

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ABSTRACT

The Mental, Social and Emotional Benefits of Computers in a Recreation Program for Senior Citizens

Forty senior citizens participated in a study to determine the difference in short-term memory ability between a group of elderly individuals exposed to a six-week microcomputer training program and a group of elderly not exposed to the microcomputer training program. Of those seniors who participated in the treatment, data was collected on pre-post computer game scores, pre-post short-term memory scores (serial digit learning span test) and observance recorded of social and emotional behavior changes. The data was analyzed using a split-plot analysis of variance, one factor repeated analysis of variance and Scheffe's Test.

The experimental group scored statistically better than the control group at the .05 level of significance on the serial digit learning span test. There was a significance difference between initial and final scores on two of the three computer games, they were challenged toward beating the computer, increasing self-esteem through a sense of mastery of the game. Many individuals developed new friendships as computer training buddies, increased communications with family members, wanted to learn about other computer software and seek employment.

THE MENTAL, SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL BENEFITS OF COMPUTERS IN A RECREATION PROGRAM FOR SENIOR CITIZENS

As computer technology continues to affect individual's lifestyles in society, it becomes increasingly important to address issues concerning the impact of this technology on the well-being of senior adults (Hoot & Hayslip, 1983). The use of computer technology can be integrated into a therapeutic recreation program as one objective to the problem of short-term memory deficit in elderly individuals whether these individuals reside in a nursing home or supervised community apartment house setting. The flexible and interactive nature of personal computers, combined with their graphics, animation and sound capabilities offer exciting new possibilities for mental exercise (Kleiman, 1983).

"Communication and social interaction" is one component contributing to the physical and mental well-being of the older adult (Ryan & Heaven, 1986). Some senior citizens who participated in the Menlo Park, California, Little Senior Adults Community Center Computer Workshop Project simply wanted to use the technology as a means of communicating with their children and grandchildren (Chin, 1984). Then there were other participants who became computer buddies and established long lasting friendships.

The aging process is often accompanied with a decrease in sensory, perceptual-motor, and central nervous system processes.

Poor adaptation to the aging process may result in low self-esteem, the "I'm too old to do anything" attitude. Weisman (1983) used computer games in a nursing home setting to improve emotional well-being, residents comments were favorable. Comments like, "It's fun", " You're never too old to learn something new", "It's a challenge and that's what we need" demonstrated evidence that participants benefited from their feeling of victory as they successfully executed the skills to beat the computer games.

The need for investigation in the area of cognitive training, social and emotional improvement via computer with an elderly population contributes answers that would either support or challenge the existing limited research. A computer-based project is one way of providing a new and stimulating activity to senior citizens while measuring a change in cognitive function.

Peniston (1990) constructed a study to determine the difference in short-term memory ability between a group of elderly individuals exposed to a six-week microcomputer training program and a group a elderly not exposed to the microcomputer training program. The hypotheses tested were: there will be no significant difference between post-test short-term memory [serial digit learning span] scores in elderly individuals who participate in the [six-week] computer-assisted training program, and elderly individuals who do not participate in the computer-assisted training program; there will be no significant difference between initial and final scores on microcomputer

video games, Hangman, Digit/Symbol Transfer and Sequenced Memory in the experimental group; and there will be no significant interaction between experimental and control groups on serial digit learning span post-test scores.

Selection of the Sample

A total of 160 senior citizens (over 62 years of age) residing in Encino House Midtown and Encino House East apartments in Albuquerque, New Mexico were randomly selected by apartment unit numbers. Sixty individuals chose to participate in the project. After testing procedures, twenty-five people from Encino House East and twenty-seven people from Encino House Midtown were qualified to participate in the project. Subjects from Encino House East were the experimental group and Encino Midtown served as the control group.

Instruments

The Mini-Mental State (MMS) (Folstein, et al., 1975) was chosen to examine cognitive mental status. It is comprised of 11 questions in a two section format. Concurrent validity was determined by correlating MMS scores with Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS), Verbal and Performance scores. MMS versus Verbal IQ, Pearson r was 0.776 ($p < 0.001$) and MMS versus Performance, Pearson r was 0.660 ($p < 0.001$). MMS test-retest reliability is .98.

The Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS) was found to be a helpful instrument in screening depression among community elderly (Lester, 1986). It is a 30 - question test with a "yes/no"

answer to each question. Test validity determine by the classification level of depression among subjects on Research Diagnostic Criteria (RDC). GDS scores proved highly significant $F(2.97) = 99.48$, $p < 0.001$ with RDC criteria. The split-half reliability coefficient for GDS is 0.94 (Yesavage, et al., 1983).

The Serial Digit Learning Span Scale is a supra-span developed for measuring digit span that have greater sensitivity to memory deficits. Hamsher, et al., 1980 and Benton, et al., 1983 confirmed this test to be more sensitive to the psychologic changes that accompany the normal aging of individuals aged 65 years and older, than the sub-span, digit-span test. This learning span involves the presentation of either eight or nine randomly selected single digits for a varying number of trials, the maximum is twelve. This test was validated with brain damaged or diseased population (Hamsher, et al., 1980) and digit span test for effectiveness of detecting brain disease. The overall sensitivity of the learning span test to detect impairment was 46% ($z = 3.08$; $p = 0.002$) compared to 31% for the digit span. A reliability measure could not be located for this instrument. The scale also has established norms for ages 16 to 76.

The Hangman game was chosen because it had been used with the elderly population to increase self-esteem and stimulate cognitive abilities. Hangman (Public Domain) is a multilevel traditonal hangman game. One person is involved with the playing of the game. The software works on spelling, attention and con-

centration, verbal and nonverbal memory (Cook, 1987).

Participants select letters from the alphabet to make a word of 11 or less characters, filling in the number of spaces that appear on the computer monitor. The penalty for each incorrect guess is the addition of a part of the body of the "person" which is to be hung on the screen. The scoring procedure used in this research project was 0 - points for missing a word (getting "hung), 5 - points for guessing a word and $-.1$ for each letter guess from the word. Five points is given for getting the word and $.6$ subtracted from 5.0 (12 guesses minus 6 spaces for the word) to receive a score of 4.4 .

Digit/Symbol Transfer is part of the Soft Tools '85 series designed by Odie L. Bracy, Ph.D. from Psychological Software Services, Inc. This program places demands on attention, concentration, perceptual-motor skills and immediate memory. A key is displayed across the top of the screen showing numbers $1 - 9$ paired with nine symbols. The user must rapidly supply the missing numbers on the remaining display so that the proper numbers and symbols are paired. Scoring is automatic after the last number is transferred (Bracy, 1985).

Sequenced Memory, also part of the Soft Tools '85 series, is a program that provides a structured recall task. A certain number of geometric shapes are presented (1 to 6). After the shapes disappear, the player must pick the correct shape and its order of appearance from a listing at the bottom of the screen. The computer checks each, responds and corrects errors when they

occur. Scores are provided indicating total individual correct choices and highest level on which all items were chosen correctly (Bracy, 1985).

Procedures

All subjects were tested with the GDS (Brink, 1982) and MMS (Folstein, et al., 1975) to eliminate individuals who exhibit severe depression and symptoms of severe dementia which can effect short-term memory scores. Seven subjects were eliminated from participating in this project after testing was completed. The remaining subjects were tested for short-term memory loss with the Serial Digit Learning Span Test (Benton, et al., 1983).

Twenty-five subjects in the experimental group participated in a six-week, three sixty-minute session per week, computer-based program. The first two sessions were an introduction to computers. On the third session, initial scores from Hangman, Digit/Symbol Transfer and Sequenced Memory were obtained from each participant; final scores on these games were acquired from session 17. The third to sixteenth sessions consisted of running the computer and playing on the video game software.

The training took place in the day room or chapel area of the apartment complex. Subjects were placed in groups of four or three and seated next to each of the three computers. The subjects were divided into two groups. Group 1 met from 10:00 - 11:00 a.m., and Group 2 met from 11:00 - 12:00 p.m., every Monday, Wednesday and Thursday for six weeks. Each subject randomly received each of the three games to play for 15 minutes at

each session. During the 60 - minute session, subjects had the opportunity to view each game program and their peers' interactions with a particular game. Subjects were advised by researcher not to make comments, offer suggestions, give praise or feedback before, during or after a peer's computer training session. The computer equipment and software was removed from the premises after each training session to prevent a bias result in post-test measures due to additional practice.

The control group was not given any information about computers or memory training techniques for memory improvement. They were to go on as usual as their daily schedule. The passage of time served as a control mechanism.

Post-test scores on the Serial Digit Learning Span were attained from control and experimental subjects on the eighth week. Participants who completed the computer-assisted program received a certificate of completion and a gift.

Treatment of Data

A split-plot analysis of variance (SPANOVA) statistical investigation was conducted on this two between - one within subject design to analyze the results of the variables presented in the following two hypothesis statements: there will be no significant difference between post-test serial digit learning span scores in elderly individuals who participate in the six-week computer-assisted training program, and elderly individuals who do not participate in the computer-assisted training program, and there will be no significant interaction between experimental

and control group on serial digit learning span post-test scores. A one factor repeated analysis of variance and Scheffe's Test was utilized to determine the results of multiple treatment administration to subjects and significant post hoc multiple comparisons in the hypothesis statement: there will be no significant difference between initial and final scores obtained from the microcomputer video games Hangman, Digit/Symbol Transfer and Sequenced Memory in the experimental group. The SPANOVA and one factor repeated measure ANOVA results were checked with the value (f) table at the .05 significance level. Homogeneity of groups was determined using the Levene's Test.

Results

In the SPANOVA, Table 1 (p.9), the main effect for between subject factor (A) of $F(1,38) = 2.93$ was not significant. The main effect for within subject factor (B) $F(1,38) = 1.23$ was not significant. The interaction effect of (AB) $F(1,38) = 13.12$ was significant. The plotted interaction graph in Figure 1 (p.10) and Table 2 (p.10) Serial Digit Learning Span Scores reveal that the experimental group demonstrated an increase in pre- to post-test scores, while the control group displayed a decrease in post-test scores, an ordinal interaction occurred. A post hoc comparison with the Scheffe's Test of both groups at post-test level revealed a $t_{obs.} \mid -2.90 \mid \geq 2.86, p < .05$. By a slight margin, a significant difference did occur between post-test control and experimental group serial digit learning span scores, suggesting that the computer training program had some effect on

TABLE 1

Split-Plot
ANOVA Summary Table

<u>Source of Variance</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Sig F</u>
<u>Between S.</u>	1443.5	39			
Control &					
Experiment grs. (A)	103.5	1	103.5	2.93	4.10
All Subjects in					
grs. (S/A)	1340	38	35.3		
<u>Within Ss</u>	280.5	40			
Pre/Post					
Within grs. (B)	6.6	1	6.6	1.23	4.10
Interaction (AB)	70.3	1	70.3	13.12	4.10*
B x subjects					
within grs. (BxSw)	203.6	38	5.36		
<u>Total</u>	1724.0	79			

p.<.05

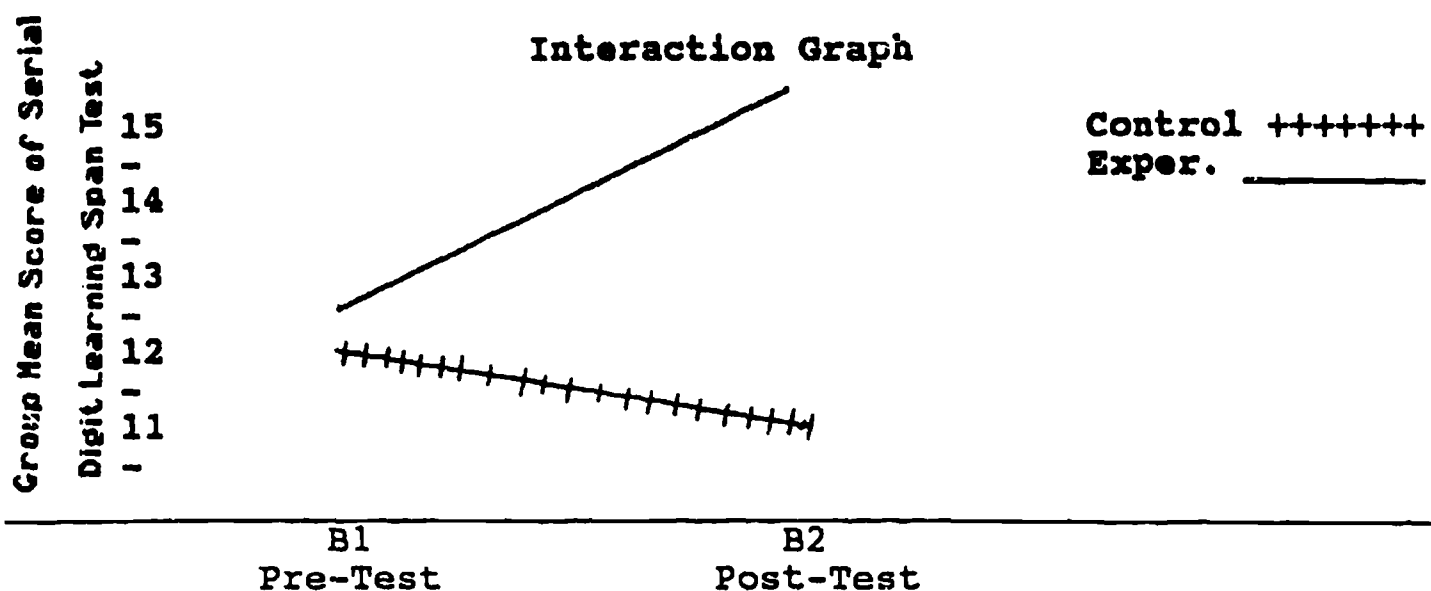


Figure 1. Mean scores of control and experimental group on the Serial Digit Learning Span Test before and after treatment portion of program

TABLE 2
Serial Digit Learning Span Scores

<u>Experimental Group</u>			<u>Control Group</u>		
Pre-Test		Post-Test	Pre-Test		Post-Test
Nor	17	21	Mod	6	2
M.I.	13	13	M.I.	11	11
Nor	16	18	Nor	14	15
Nor	17	12	Nor	17	15
Nor	15	20	Nor	17	17
M.I.	10	14	M.I.	8	4
Nor	15	21	M.I.	12	6
Nor	17	23	Nor	17	10
Nor	17	7	M.I.	7	4
M.I.	11	16	Nor	16	14
Nor	16	21	Mod	6	9
Nor	17	22	M.I.	14	14
Nor	17	18	Nor	16	16
M.I.	12	14	Mod	6	6
M.I.	9	11	Nor	15	16
Mod	6	10	Nor	17	14
M.I.	10	15	M.I.	8	8
Mod	6	9	M.I.	12	12
M.I.	8	10	M.I.	13	12
M.I.	7	10	Nor	16	17
Mean	12.80	15.25	Mean	12.40	11.10
SD	4.099	4.97	SD	4.16	4.73
Total	256	305	Total	248	222

Nor - Normal, M.I.- Mildly Impaired, Mod - Moderately Impaired

increasing short-term memory scores in elderly individuals.

The one factor repeated measures ANOVA produced a level of significance between initial and final computer game scores, $F(.05, 5, 95) = 61.56$. The Scheffe's Test revealed level of significance in each game. A level of significance did not occur between initial and final scores of the Hangman game, $t \text{ obs. } |-3.31| < 3.51, p > .05$. The Digit/Symbol Transfer game analysis displayed a level of significance between initial and final scores, $t \text{ obs. } |-5.71| > 3.51, p < .05$. Sequenced Memory also exhibited a level of significance, $t \text{ obs. } |-4.64| > 3.51, p < .05$.

Discussion

The results presented indicate that a six-week computer-assisted training program had an affect on short-term memory in elderly individuals. There was a significant difference between post-test serial digit learning span scores based on group treatment, with the experimental group scoring statistically better than the control group at the .05 level of significance. A decline in post-test scores appeared in the control group, this possibly had an affect on producing an ordinal interaction between the control and experimental group. The discrepancy in pre- and post-test control group scores may be due to the lack of a reliability measurement on this standardized test. There was a significant difference between initial and final scores on the Digit/Symbol Transfer game and Sequenced Memory game at the .05 level of significance.

The Hangman game proved most favorable to the group; it

appears the group was more comfortable guessing words than numbers or shapes. Participants enjoyed guessing a word before the person was "hung". The emotional benefit here is the participants beating the computer, increasing self-worth through mastering the game. The majority of the scores did increase, but the increase was not large enough to produce a level of significance.

The experimental group appeared to enjoy working in a cooperative setting. In fact, many individuals developed new friendships as computer training buddies. Subjects within their groups began eating lunch together, going out socially and attending in-house social events. Despite the fact that subjects were advised by researcher not to make comments, offer suggestions, give praise or feedback before, during or after a peer's computer training session, it was difficult to monitor what individuals talked about during their free time with each other. It is possible that subject interaction between training sessions was a confounding variable that could have affected the dependent post-test variables, Serial Digit Learning Span scores and computer game scores. Another subject increased her communication with her son who is a computer programmer.

Subjects were also interested in purchasing a computer to write an autobiography, learn word processing, keeping track of personal finances and continue using cognitive rehabilitation software during leisure time to help strengthen memory ability. One subject was even offered a job through her doctor when he

discovered she was receiving computer training, this offer increased her level of self-esteem.

Conclusion

Through the introduction of a computer-based program during leisure time, elderly subjects after training, were able to enlarge post-test short-term memory scores, inflate final scores on computer video games and learned how to operate a computer. Subjects also wanted to continue computer work as a hobby, seek employment, communicate with family members and friends, and continue learning about computer technology. Computer training in the older adult is a challenging learning experience which expands one's problem-solving skills, offer prospects for employment and can create a new hobby (Ryan and Heaven, 1986).

Recommendation

Based upon the findings and supportive data, microcomputer training should be further explored for possible use with the elderly population. Develop studies using instruments to measure social interaction in cognitive computer training to obtain quantitative data. Create a cognitive computer therapy project using cooperative and independent learning situations to monitor for change between the cooperative and independent setting. Also, survey studies could explore computer game software for application to an aging population or ranking of recreational activities in a community or institutional setting, determine how a computer program ranks with traditional leisure activities. This type of research serves as encouragement for the gerontolo-

gist and recreation therapist to consider computer applications to enhance the mental, social and emotional well-being of senior citizens.

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RECREATIONAL BOATING MANAGEMENT

by RON HORTON,
Boating Officer, Pineview Reservoir

During the past 20 to 30 years, we have observed an increasingly sophisticated and complex society react and regulate the operation of its automobiles, aircraft, and other similar activities. All too often, however, our recreational pursuits have received very little attention or oversight. Since bureaucracies tend to react to events rather than anticipate them, laws and regulations have often lagged far behind events which can change very rapidly. This is particularly true when new recreation concepts or products are introduced to the public.

Due to the affluence of our society, as well as the vastly increased amount of leisure time we have available to us, there has been a virtual explosion in the number of pleasure craft visiting our rather limited water resources in Utah. We have passed the saturation point on some of our reservoirs and lakes and will soon reach that point on many others. This, has resulted in a corresponding degradation of our boating experiences. This position paper suggests some possible solutions to the many problems that beset the boating public. While some of the suggestions will appear radical at first glance and will require further thought and refinement, others may be suitable for immediate use on various bodies of water.

ZONING OF WATERS

We had the fortunate opportunity at Pineview Reservoir to create a "Quiet Water" zone. All watercraft are allowed into the area, but they must travel at a slow wakeless speed while in the zoned area. The area is located at the neck of the reservoir and is about a mile long. The dam is in the west end of the canyon and therefore boaters have no reason to enter the "quiet zone" unless they want to be there. In other words, it is a dead end canyon. Boaters are not required to pass through the canyon to get to some other point on the lake. We have received many positive comments from boaters about the concept and they are even protective of the area. The U.S. Forest Service and Utah State Park personnel at Pineview are discussing the possibility of further zoning, especially due to the proliferation of personal watercraft.

The down side of zoning is that each user group then wants its own use area, which isn't always possible. Another negative aspect is that all waters are not suitable to zoning for various reasons, including size, contour, and natural features or lack of them. A large flat body of water, such as Willard Bay, would be very difficult to zone for various user groups while Pineview, with its three

fingers and neck is comparatively easy to zone. A small reservoir would have difficulty with the zoning concept, but a variation of the idea might work. On different days of the week, different user groups could use the water, or possibly different bodies of water could be used for different boating activities. Pineview usually has canyon winds in the afternoons which makes it very desirable for sailing while Willard does not. Waterskiing, pleasure boating and personal watercraft could be allowed in the mornings at Pineview, but restricted in the afternoon, while these activities would be allowed all day at Willard Bay. Pineview has become a poor fishery, so fishing could be tolerated at all times without undue difficulty. This concept would allow most of the user groups access to Pineview and at the same time segregate them and hopefully enhance their boating experiences.

RESERVATION SYSTEM FOR BOATERS

Another idea that is sure to be met with skepticism, but should be at least considered, is a reservation system for boaters. The recreational public has become accustomed to making reservations for many of their activities, up to and including backpacking the Grand Canyon. We obviously have the technology, in the form of computers, to handle such a task. This would give water based park managers a tool with which they would have the capability to react to changing conditions almost immediately. For instance, as the water

level drops at local reservoirs, the number of boats allowed on a body of water could be reduced accordingly. This would keep the number of boats on a lake at a safe and presumably enjoyable level for everyone involved. When special events are scheduled for a lake or reservoir, such as speedboat races, fishing derbies or other activities, no reservations would be allowed. The boater would then know to cancel his outing or make arrangements to go to another lake instead of arriving at his destination and finding it closed to boating activities. While this idea isn't going to make anyone wildly happy at the moment, thought should be given to the concept before it is dismissed out of hand. It would be very interesting to observe and learn from the first lake or reservoir that decides to utilize such a concept.

RESTRICT BOAT SIZE AND SPEED ON SMALLER LAKES

The size, power, and speed of pleasure craft has grown rapidly in recent years due to the apparent affluence of our society. We are seeing larger and faster boats on the water, yet the size of the reservoirs remains the same. We should at least consider a formula that will restrict boats from the smaller lakes and place them on bodies of water that are capable of handling them. A 40 foot boat on a 3,000 acre reservoir is somewhat ludicrous. The wake that is created, assuming they manage to get up on a plane, is hazardous to smaller boats.

These larger boats also take up space that could be used by two or three smaller vessels. While some areas have apparently begun to impose speed limits on the water, this concept should be implemented on a nationwide basis, just as it is for automobiles. There is a boat at Pineview, named UFO, that pumps out 1000 horsepower and is capable of traveling at approximately 100 miles an hour across the water. Fortunately, the owner does not imbibe in alcoholic beverages until the evening hours after the boat has been put away for the day, but other operators do not always observe such niceties. It is insane to allow such a powerful vessel to run at will on a small, often very crowded reservoir. Radar guns and some training, along with a change in the law would alleviate this problem.

REQUIRE MARINE DISPOSAL STATIONS

Managers of even the smallest recreational boating areas must include the installation of disposal stations in their future management plans. This requirement is in response to the ubiquitous Porta Potties on board our recreational vessels. The Ogden Yacht Club installed such a disposal station recently for the use of its members and it collects approximately 4,000 gallons of sewage a season. This from a relatively small percentage of the boating public at Pineview. Since most reservoirs were designed and built to supply culinary water to local communities, it behooves us to make every effort to keep the water in them as clean as

possible.

DESIGNATE SMALLER LAKES AND RESERVOIRS FOR NON-MOTORIZED VESSELS

Managers should resist the idea of making all bodies of water available to all boaters. The Causeys and Tony Groves of the Wasatch should be left unimproved for use by canoeists, rafts, and other non-motorized vessels. Launch ramps should never be considered at these small lakes and reservoirs. Rule of thumb should be, if you can carry your vessel to the water, you can use it there. In some cases, other restrictions may have to be imposed in order to retain a positive boating experience. Causey Reservoir is an example. Jet Skis and other personal watercraft were being carried down to the water and operated to the consternation of other users. Personal watercraft are now restricted from use at that facility by the Forest Service regulations.

MANDATORY BOAT SAFETY COURSE

Now, a case must be made for training classes or boating safety seminars that would be required before a boat could be legally operated on the waters of this state, as well as the country. While the words "operators license" is probably too strong at this point in time, we must consider this a desired objective in the not too distant future. For some reason, the boating public has always been exempted from requirements that would indicate they have even the

slightest bit of knowledge about the activity in which they are participating. The time has come for that exemption to end.

Pineview Reservoir covers approximately 3,000 acres when full and the number of boats which may be placed on the water is limited to 460 on a given day. Please imagine, an asphalt parking lot of about the same size with 460 automobiles operating on it. That would be an area of just over 2 miles long and 2 miles wide. Please keep in mind that there are no painted lines on the parking lot and for all practical purposes, there are no other traffic control devices. You may turn anytime you like, without signalling your intent since there are no turn indicators, but then we do that on the freeway, don't we? Since there are no brake lights on boats we will remove them from our vehicles, along with the brakes themselves and since there is no speed limit on the water, you may go as fast or as slow as you like. Of course, if you are driving on our parking lot at night, you will be doing so with a small colored light on each side of your vehicle and no headlights. Now lets suppose that everyone in your car wants to party, so they all have alcoholic beverages in hand. They can drink as much as they like since there is no open container law on the water in Utah. If the driver of your car would like to have an occasional beer or mixed drink, go ahead and give him one, since he is allowed to drink and drive, as long as his BAC (blood alcohol content) remains at 0.08 or less. If by now,

you are starting to feel a little less secure about boating, you will want to consider this. Not one single person out there on our parking lot is required to have even the most basic knowledge of how to operate a vehicle, let alone know the laws which govern their operation.

The Utah Division of Parks and Recreation has in place a basic boating course that has been offered to the public for the past three years. The course offers enough knowledge to the beginning boater to at least get them started safely in the activity, much as the Driver Education courses do in our high schools. The response has been very positive, not only to the course, but to the idea of requiring a permit or license to operate a vessel. Contacts with boaters on the water, especially if they have been involved in or have witnessed an accident or near accident, also strongly support the concept of a required course and licenses or permits. Boat dealers and manufactures traditionally have not supported the idea due to a misplaced concept that it will effect sales. When the requirement for such classes is put in place, a grandfather clause should be included for boaters with a good deal of experience to preclude the program from being overwhelmed in the beginning. If the person applying for an exclusion could show, for example, that he has registered a boat in his name for say, the past five years, he would be issued a license. At the end of five years after legislation has been passed the window should close for such an

exclusion and all operators would be required to attend the required course. Also, those people who have already attended the basic boating course offered by the Division would be issued a license. While the course offered by the division has been on a small scale, the foundation is in place and the five year time frame would allow the program to be expanded with appropriate funding.

We live in a society where even the simple pleasures in life are no longer so simple. The litigious nature of our people demands that we accept responsibility for our actions, as well as the lack of them. Knowledge about the activity we are engaged in, even if it's required, will not only enhance our experiences, but will also reduce our losses in lives, accidents, hardships and property damages.

A Positive Approach To Employee Evaluations

Hal Potter 1

Abstract: This paper discusses the importance of employee evaluations. A model is presented that will help supervisors evaluate their employees in a positive manner. The process begins with the recruitment and hiring stages and continues throughout the employee's time with the agency.

Employee evaluations are critical to the success of every recreation agency. There is no valid proof that employees meet agency goals and objectives without continual evaluations. Unfortunately, evaluations are sometimes considered a necessary evil that must be completed each year. Some supervisors ignore the process altogether to avoid the prospect of having to confront an employee with problems. Employees can also have negative attitudes about being evaluated. They feel that their supervisor is only going to be telling them what they are doing wrong. Poorly done evaluations can lead to a breakdown in communication, feelings of insecurity, and reduced staff motivation, and failure to meet professional and program goals (Kintigh, 1989).

These attitudes toward employee evaluations stem from the supervisor not having formal training in evaluating an employee, or they have had bad experiences with evaluations when they were being evaluated by their superiors. With proper training for the supervisors and the employee, performance evaluations can be a positive, growing experience for all persons involved in the process. Evaluations will protect both the supervisor and the employee. The supervisor will have a documented paper trail if an employee needs to be disciplined or involuntarily separated from the agency. If the employee is performing his/her duties properly, there will be periodic evaluations that reflect this in their personnel file. If there is ever an attempt by a supervisor to terminate the employee there would be no just cause. If the employee is not performing satisfactorily, then there will be a program outlined to help the employee improve, or a mutual decision will can be made that maybe the need for a change is warranted.

Hal Potter, Director of Intramurals/Lecturer, Utah State University, Logan Utah 84322-7005.

The next step is critical that of having properly written job descriptions to determine whether a person is performing their duties. Inadequate or no job descriptions will cause a breakdown in the process. As a supervisor, you will have no basis or standard to compare the persons performance to. There are a variety of formats in use however, it is important to use one that will provide as much information as possible regarding the duties for the position. Appendix A gives one example of a job description that can be used. This format is longer than the more typical one or two page types. But, there is plenty of detail included. The first page gives the necessary information in standard formats: title, immediate supervisor, responsibilities, and areas of knowledge or experience. An additional page describes in detail each of the areas of responsibility. This list of tasks describes what must in that area of responsibility.

Once effective job descriptions are written, and a new employee is hired, the supervisor and the new employee must meet in an initial planning session. In this session the supervisor must clearly explain what expectations he has for that position. If there are deadlines for projects to be finished these must be communicated. The supervisor must make the employee aware of the goals he has for that position. There should not be any hidden agendas. After this step has been completed, the new employee should be given time to establish his goals for the position. These goals should be based on the job description. Using the format in Appendix A, goals are written for each of the tasks outlined for each job responsibility. These goals become the basis for the performance evaluation. Appendix B is an example of goals written for a particular job description.

During the monitoring stages, the new employee can be supervised closely in the early stages of employment, but with time and as confidence builds the employee should be given the time and authority to do his job. The Supervisor should not hover over the person, unless requested by the employee. Occasionally, a positive uplifting suggestion by the supervisor can help the employee over any rough spots. The method of supervision will keep communication open in both directions. The supervisor must show a friendly, caring attitude, and not authoritarian. If the employee feels threatened, the communication lines will break down.

When the time comes to evaluate the employees job performance, notice should be sent to the employee of the time of the evaluation, and the method to be used. Give the employee the opportunity to list those goals achieved, and those not accomplished. A summary of what has happened during the evaluation period should be written by both the supervisor and the employee. At the meeting the employee should share with the supervisor his summary, and the supervisor should give the employee a copy of what he felt was accomplished. Then together, both should discuss what was accomplished, what could have been done better, or what should not have happened. Areas of improvements, if any, need to be brought out now.

There are three common rater errors that the supervisor needs to avoid during the evaluation stage (Peterson, 1989). The first error is the halo effect and horns effect. This results from taking one specific employee trait or behavior and generalizing by applying it to other employee characteristics. The employee rating will be either very high on all characteristics or very low because of either the halo or horns effect. The second error is the central tendency and leniency errors. These errors occur when one tends to use only the middle of the rating format ignoring either end of the spectrum or if one leans toward generally positive or generally negative ratings for each performance criterion. The third the similar to me and contrast error. This is where the employee is compared to how you would do the job if in that position (or when you were in it). If the person performs as you did (or would), they rate highly. If they do not, then they rate low. All three of these errors need to be avoided in order for the evaluation to be fair and accurate.

The final step in the process is setting goals for the next evaluation period. The supervisor and the employee writes these goals, and agreement by both parties is obtained. The job description is the basis for the goals, and reflect the ideas discussed in the evaluation just completed. This final step is critical for an employee with problems. A plan of Assistance is outlined to help the employee improve in the needed areas. The steps to be taken, and the areas of improvement must be clearly defined. A time-line for improvement is also established. Explained the consequences of failing to follow the procedure and begin the monitoring process again.

For those employees who continue to have problems, or commit a serious infraction, there are several steps that must be taken to ensure the employees rights and the agencies rights are not violated. The first thing to consider in discipline is what is Just Cause.

One must search hard and long to discover a negotiated contract or master agreement that does not contain a "just cause" provision. The typical language of such a provision is usually as follows:

"No personnel shall be disciplined, reprimanded, discharged, demoted, or deprived of any professional advantages without just cause."

Such reference usually concludes at that point without any further clarification or definition. With no clarification or definition there is no specification of the test to be applied to a given circumstance to assure that the "cause" for taking disciplinary action is "just."

Once the concept of "just cause" is incorporated into the master agreement, it is imperative there be as clear a definition as possible of this requirement. This will provide the basis on which the administrator must proceed in corrective discipline and will formulate a consistency of behavior should the matter in question be taken to arbitration, tenure hearing, or litigation. A good method of defining "just cause" is to pose the definition in a question such as the following:

"Did the administrator have a "just " and **Proper Reason** to " cause " the action to be taken against the staff member?

Having a **Proper Reason** to take disciplinary action is "just cause."

The test of "just cause" is that the administrator must be able to show harm the agency. Often, the reason for taking an action doesn't involve participants or other staff members; instead, it is an infraction of a rule or a procedure or an expected conduct which hampers the administrator's ability to operate the program in an orderly and efficient manner. So, harm must be shown to any aspect of the agency.

Due Process

"Due process" is the implementation of a **PROCEDURE**, which when adhered to guarantees the **PROTECTION OF INDIVIDUAL RIGHTS**. When applied to the Corrective Discipline process, this means there can be no surprises. The individual staff member must be made aware of what is expected regarding conduct, performance and behavior. Furthermore, the staff member must be guaranteed "fair" treatment when a violation occurs. The individual must be kept informed, and the administrator must be able to prove this fact through appropriate documentation.

Due process also provides the right of objective determination of disputed questions of fact based upon established evidence. Simply, stated, due process is the concept of "fair play."

In the implementation of this process there must be adherence to the following test:

1. Was the rule, conduct, procedure or order **Known** to the staff member and was it one that would be considered reasonable and related to the efficient, orderly operation of the agency?
2. Was the staff member notified relative to expected behavior in this regard and was there prior knowledge and indication of **Probable Disciplinary Consequences** for failure to comply on the part of the staff member?
3. Was there a fair and objective **Investigation** of the circumstances and the facts **Before** the disciplinary action; and was there a clear violation or disobedient action?
4. Is there specific data, **Documentation**, and other information that exists to substantiate and verify the situation?
5. Does the disciplinary action taken reflect a degree that is consistent with the seriousness and nature of the offense? Is it **Reasonable**?
6. Has the staff member's previous record been considered and has the person received treatment that is **Consistent** with the treatment of others who has been disciplined for similar circumstances?

Due process guarantees have been provided if the administrator can answer "Yes" to all six of the previous questions.

Steps In The Discipline Process

1. Oral Warning or Oral Reprimand
2. Written Warning or Written Reprimand
3. Suspension With Pay or disciplinary time off with pay
4. Suspension Without Pay or disciplinary time off without pay
5. Dismissal or termination of employment

The steps taken in Corrective Discipline normally are in the above progressive order. However, although corrective discipline is progressive, it should be emphasized that in certain circumstances, depending on the nature of the unacceptable conduct at issue, a first offense could be one for which the staff member could be discharged. Accordingly, the **NATURE** of the incident itself determines whether normal progressive steps of discipline will be strictly followed. Therefore, there is no ironclad rule which shows that disciplinary procedures must always follow a progressive route. Some step can be skipped if there is "just cause."

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Appendix A

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Utah State University Job Analysis

Name: _____ **Department Head:** _____

Title: Director of Intramurals **Immediate Supervisor:** _____

Department: Student Services

Responsibilities	Rank	Percent
A. Supervise, advise, assist and manage Intramural Program.	1	25 %
B. Hire, train, supervise, and evaluate student managers of the intramural program.	3	10 %
C. Assess the needs and interests of USU students in competitive and recreational/leisure time activities, and develop programs to meet those needs.	4	10 %
D. Forecast annual operating budget, manage accounts, monitor expenditures for the Intramural Program.	7	5 %
E. Assist in determining and enforcing policies and procedures for facilities operation, risk management, and security of intramural staff and personnel.	5	10 %
F. Evaluate all of the programs offered through the Intramural Program. Seek for increased participation and satisfaction in each program.	6	10 %
G. Maintains effective public relations with the University community in relation to the intramural program.	2	20 %
H. Assists the Campus Recreation Director in all matters in his absence.	9	3 %
I. Serves as a member of the Student Services Recreation Committee.	8	5 %
J. Continue to develop professionally through participation in local, state, regional, and national professional organizations:	10	2 %
1. Utah Recreation & Parks Association		
2. National Recreation & Parks Association		
3. National Intramural-Recreation Sports Association		
4. American Alliance & Utah Alliance for Health, PE, Recreation & Dance		

Specific Type of Knowledge, Ability	Code	Rating
1. Management Skills (Administrative, Accounting, and Budgetary)		
2. Ability to motivate and work with students and faculty.		
3. Knowledge and experience with various recreational equipment needs, inventories, acquisitions, etc.		
4. Knowledge and experience with sports tournaments, leagues, schedules, etc.		
5. Competent at organizational skills to handle multiple tasks & responsibilities simultaneously.		
6. Advertising information and public relations experience.		
7. Knowledge, skills & abilities to lead groups in various recreation outings, workshops, etc.		

Job Analysis

Responsibility:	Rank	Percent
A. Supervise, advise, assist and manage Intramural Program.		

[illegible]

Thinking/Freedom To Act			
Supervisory / administrative direction	Organizational Policies and Procedures	Systems / Plans / Methods / Techniques	Legal / Governmental Statutes and / or Regulations
5	4	4	2

Working Conditions											
Exposure to physically injurious conditions		Must assume uncomfortable positions and/or remain in one pos		Exposure to hazardous substances		Exposure to extreme environmental conditions		Physical demand		Emotional Stress	
Freq.	Hazard	Freq.	Sever.	Freq.	Hazard	Freq.	Sever.	Freq.	Level	Freq.	Level
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	3

Above ratings range from 1-5, 1 being least frequency or severity/hazard and 5 being highest frequency.

Appendix B

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JOB MISSION:

1. Organize, administer, & promote a variety of competitive and non-competitive recreational sports & activities for USU.
2. Administration of programs, & facilities
3. Supervisory of personnel
4. Financial aspects of programming

Key Job Duties	Goals	Review 1	Review 2	Review 3
<p>1. Responsible for determining policies and procedures for building functions, maintenance, and security.</p> <p>2. Hires, trains, schedules supervises and evaluates an extensive staff of professionals interns, and students with diverse areas of responsibility</p> <p>3. Forecasts annual operating budget/payroll, manages accounts, monitors expenditures and income of each.</p> <p>4. Maintains effective public relations with the University community. Acts as liason between students and the administration.</p> <p>5. Coordinates with Physical Plant all custodial services, preventive maintenance, repairs, and improvements</p>	<p>1. By Aug 15, 1989, Establish program design for Campus Recreation & Accounts.</p> <p>2. By Aug 1, 1989, Establish program design for Outdoor Recreation Program</p> <p>3. By Sep 1, 1989, Complete planning for 1989-90 Outdoor Recreation Program.</p> <p>4. By Aug 31, 1989, Complete planning for 1989-90 Intramural Program.</p> <p>5. By Aug 31, 1989, Complete equipment inventory, storage, & resource needs for Outdoor Recreation Center & Program.</p> <p>6. By Sep 10, 1989, Receive required information regarding Outdoor Rec Center & Program Operations to put to print in brochure.</p> <p>7. By Aug 25, 1989, Complete required materials regarding bylaws, results, proposed schedule dates of activities, risk management, & rules of play for printing of brochure.</p> <p>8. By Sep 10,, 1989, Complete Recreation booklet design and information to be sent to publisher.</p> <p>9. By Sep 10, 1989, Have ordered essential supplies for the operation of the Outdoor Program & Intramural Program.</p>			

Developing Formal Writing Skills in Recreation Professionals

Submitted by Jesse T. Dixon, Ph.D.

San Diego State University

Paper submitted to the Eleventh Intermountain Symposium

Provo, Utah

Fall 1990

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ABSTRACT

Many students who work in the field of recreation, leisure, or parks are required to prepare written correspondence as part of a job description. Professionals are frequently expected to submit reports for insurance settlement cases, prepare grant proposals, answer letters of complaint, summarize staff productivity, and advertise programs. Writing handbooks or guides for writing are available in bookstores. Unfortunately, many handbooks for writing are specific in format but are general in application. This paper is intended to provide the reader with an orientation to the development of a professional writing course in the field of recreation. In addition, a number of issues are discussed which address the preparation of students for writing in professional service settings.

Developing Formal Writing Skills in Recreation Professionals

The Need for Formal Writing Skills

Contexts of Formal Writing. The author teaches a course entitled Writing in Park and Recreation Settings. The course was developed in response to widespread concern for the level of writing skill in college students. The Department of Recreation Administration at San Diego State University developed a specific writing skills course oriented to professional correspondence within the context of the recreation services. This paper is intended to provide the reader with an orientation to the course and the issues involved in preparing students to write in recreation service settings.

Many students who work in the field of recreation, leisure, or parks are required to prepare written correspondence as part of a job description. Professionals are frequently expected to submit reports for insurance settlement cases, prepare grant proposals, answer letters of complaint, summarize staff productivity, and advertise programs. Writing handbooks or guides for writing are available in bookstores. Unfortunately, many handbooks for writing are specific in format but general in application.

Historically, professionals have survived by fitting the formats specified for business letters to a task or problem in a professional recreation or leisure service setting. Preparing formal correspondence in a professional setting is time consuming and requires writing skill to promote a positive image. Successful professionals need to communicate their knowledge of the field and use a proper format in formal correspondence.

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The Issue of Formal Correspondence. The purpose of all writing is to communicate. The major distinction of formal correspondence is the need for efficiency and accuracy (Paxson, 1981). Professionals are consistently asked to prepare written assignments within a deadline and to make their points clearly understood. Typically, a professional does not leave work to purchase needed correspondence and expect to be entertained or flattered by the author. The reader has a specific purpose or need for reading the correspondence and must assimilate the information within a job assignment. Ideally, skilled writing can enhance productivity for both the reader and the writer.

Common Problems in Formal Writing

Specific Mechanical Problems. Writing handbooks identify common errors to look for in editing written work. The problems include the run-on sentence, the sentence fragment, errors in verb tense, improper use of the subjunctive mood, and other departures from the basics of writing. This author found it useful to identify and explore these problems as an introduction to the writing course. In an effort to teach or reinforce professional information, the author developed writing exercises which illustrated the rules and provided a message to the student. Specifically, twelve errors were identified for the student. The exercises ranged from letters of recommendation for an employee to humorous fictional scenarios.

Developing a Basis for Editing. The students are not graded on the exercises. Each student completes the exercise to provide a reference for knowledge of the rule. At this point in the course, students have an opportunity to review or to learn basic rules within the context of the class without influencing their grades. Please note that these exercises become a reference for explaining grading and corrections on the formal assignments. Ideally, students learn what to look for in editing their own work and can usually recall the writing rules later in the course. The students' knowledge of basic rules pays dividends when the grading process does not require the reteaching of information.

Nine Major Documents for Formal Writing

After the completion of introductory writing exercises, students begin their formal writing assignments. A three paragraph format is used for six of the assignments. The letters include the following: an introductory business letter, a letter to a legislator, a letter of appreciation, a letter of application, a sales letter, and an answer to a letter of complaint. In addition to these letters, students are required to prepare a memorandum, a position description, and a resume.

There is a practice session for each formal writing assignment. Rehearsing these assignments with different information helps to eliminate the confusion students may have about format and content. The grading of assignments is also enhanced because there is less debate about the students' intentions in relation to the assignments.

Time Management in Document Preparation. The author has deliberately tried to influence the students' planning strategies for writing. Students frequently "wind up" in their writing assignments. One of the common responses of students to criticism of their writing has been "I was getting to that later in the paper. Meanwhile, I thought I should talk about..." Students tend to write out their thinking in a paper. This can be useful but students frequently get lost or "birdwalk" their way to the end of the paper. The author has sincerely attempted to guide students to a planned three paragraph format for formal letters. Each paragraph has specific content and a format outline is developed for communication.

Formal Closure and Document Preparation

At the completion of the course, the students are required to prepare a portfolio sample of their documents. The portfolio includes the answer to the letter of complaint, the memorandum, the resume, and the sales letter. The papers are typewritten final drafts. The portfolio is intended to represent the best work the individual student is capable of producing. The project requires the student to rework their original assignments and present written work that is mechanically correct, specific in content, and sound in format.

This particular assignment provides a closure to the course. Each student has a final copy of selected assignments they can keep for future use in a professional setting. Please note that all of the nine assignments for the course are initially prepared in a workbook during class time. This practice allows the instructor to watch the student actually prepare the assignment. The instructor can identify specific habits the student demonstrates and give individualized feedback for writing improvement.

The Workbook Strategy. Initially, this course was taught with students using their classroom notebooks for recording notes. Part of the writing assignments were prepared during class on a prepared form. Another portion of the assignments were prepared outside of class and submitted in typewritten form. The portfolio was a separate assignment submitted at the end of the course.

The logistics of organizing handouts on each topic, keeping handouts on file for students who miss class, and reminding students to bring specific papers to class for reference was expensive instruction. Unfortunately, the problem of managing disseminated information was compounded by students who lost their assignments at a later date. In addition, there were problems with students who obtained aid in the preparation of take-home assignments. These problems mirrored the problems students have in developing their writing skills.

Generally, students can benefit from management strategies for developing their writing skills. In response to this issue, the author developed a bound writing workbook for the course which included all of the assignments. In addition, each assignment was preceded by a practice letter or document. All of the practice letters and initial assignments were designed to be written during classroom time. Only the portfolio assignment is prepared out of class.

The workbook strategy for teaching writing skills has been very effective in the management of previous writing assignments for the purpose of review. Students always have previous written work as a

reference for their assignments. In addition, students can easily see a progression of repeated errors, the history of comments from the professor, and their notes in the context of an assignment.

The workbook has also helped to focus instructional energy. The workbook provides a calendar account of work done in class. Blank pages are clear indicators of absence from class and usually provides the reason for obvious errors concerning format or content on formal assignments. Overall, the bound record of assignments and practice writing answers many questions for the students before the question is raised during class.

Grading. The assignments for the course were graded on the basis of format, content, and writing mechanics. Each assignment was worth ten points. Three points for format, three points for content, and four points for writing mechanics. The format refers to the structure of the document such as the heading, inside address, date, etc. Students frequently forget to include a complimentary closing or the date they prepared a document. The content refers to specific information in the paragraphs of the letter. For example, if students are requesting action or payment, they must indicate their request for action in the first sentence of the third paragraph. The purpose for their letter must occur in the first paragraph of a their letters, etc. The writing mechanics include basic rules for grammar, punctuation, and sentence structure.

Conclusion

This paper was intended to report the development of a course for teaching writing skills to majors in the field of recreation, leisure, or park services. The author has developed a workbook approach to teaching formal writing skills for specific professional correspondence. The assignments have been designed to be one page or less in length. The one page length allows the assignment to be completed, with feedback from the instructor, within one class period. In addition, all of the written work can be reviewed in the sequence the student received the assignments. At the completion of the course, the students have an actual record of their written work and can see their progress in the context of the entire course. The grading process for the course is consistent but the content and format is specific for each assignment.

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STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

by

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Most coaches work extremely hard and have very good intentions, but often they lose sight of the athlete; seeing only what society wants to see... outcome. Are you the type of coach who tells himself, "I care about my athletes. " But, do everything in your power to win; even if your athletes are run over in the process? As coaches, we often forget that our athletes are thinking feeling human entities with a will of their own. By understanding our athletes and developing good communication skills, we as coaches should be able to reach the outcomes we want without putting down our athletes.

Many coaches lack an understanding of group processes. How a group functions is important. What effect does the group have on personality, individual motivation, attitudes and the changing of group members (Henschen & Miner, 1989).

It has been said, that any group of people working toward common goals goes through several stages of performance development. Bruce W. Tuckman, in his article Developmental Sequence in Small Groups (1965), identified for main stages of group development. They are forming, storming, norming and

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performing.

In the forming stage, the "newness" of the group is usually greeted with a resultant unsureness and insecurity, which Tuckman compares to a young child when first apprehending rules. Behaviors which serve as a resistance to group influence and task requirements compares the storming stage to the rebelliousness of the young child following his "obedient" stages. In the third stage, resistance is overcome and cohesiveness and an ingroup feeling develops. Also, in this stage new roles are adopted and new standards evolve. Appropriately, this is called the norming stage. Within the performing stage, roles have become flexible and functional, and group energy is channeled into the task. This stage is often compared to a mature human being.

It is important to note that each stage has identifiable behavioral characteristics which reflect the emotional set of the athletes. The athletes do not always go through these stages sequentially, but often jump from stage to stage. It is then vital to the coach to know which stage his/her team is in so that he/she can effectively adjust to changing situations (Henschen & Miner, 1989). If a team reaches a certain level, they will not necessarily stay at that level. The following examples can throw a team back a few steps:

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- o injuries to key players
- o changes in the environment
- o addition of new players or returning injured players

Let us examine each stage thoroughly.

FORMING:

Characteristics:

- o testing ground for coaches and athletes
- o social integration important in moving to the next stage
- o relationships among athletes explored
- o nervous time

In the *forming stage* of group development each participant brings with them certain aspirations, expectations, fears and anxieties. The *forming stage* is relatively short, but vitally important. As a team first meets, coaches and athletes alike are assessing the situation. The coach uses these first days to figure out what type of talent he/she has and the best way of using it. The players on the other hand, are trying to get a feel of what is expected of them during practice. This is a nervous time for athletes as they are beginning to form new friendships.

In Tuckman's article (1965), orientation behavior and resultant unsureness

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and insecurity is overcome through the dependence on an authority figure during this stage. The coach being this authority figure can do a few things to speed up the transition into the *storming stage*. As the coach, it is up to you to create an environment in which communication can grow and develop. One way you could help develop this skill is through athlete interviews. During the interview, you need to put the athlete at ease, so don't conduct the interview in your office. It is best to talk with the athlete on his/her own ground or someplace neutral to you both. The tricky part is not letting the athlete know you're interviewing him. By taking a humanistic approach, and being genuinely concerned about their aspirations and expectations, you and the athlete will be better off. During the interview encourage them to express why they are in the sport and what their expectations are for the season. It is wise to reinforce team and individual behaviors which contribute to group development (Henschen & Richards 1985). Try to create an atmosphere where individual differences are recognized as an asset to the team. One way of doing this, is by reinforcing the behaviors which are favorable to you. Not only the one who scores is important, if a person blocks out to that someone else on the team can get a rebound, make a positive comment about it. Remember that the *forming stage* doesn't last very long, but it is

important to build a sound foundation. The direction of team efforts are initiated in the *forming stage*. Whether the team starts off together in the same direction or whether the members begin to take off on their own will reflect how effectively the coach was able to establish the philosophy, principles, needs, and advantages of working together to improve individual performance (Henschen & Miner 1989).

STORMING

Characteristics:

- o caused by anxieties related to athletes attempting to understand and asserting their individual roles in the group
- o competition for athletic and social status
- o "pecking order" established
- o cliques form
- o competition for attention
- o coach identifies and enlists the support of team leaders

As the team develops, a practice routine is established and each member knows what is generally expected of him/her. Conflicts during the *storming stage* are natural and generally related to individuals striving to achieve their own short term objectives with very little consideration towards others on the team (Henschen

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& Miner 1989). As roles are being defined, a "pecking order" is established. This is where your leaders emerge and unfortunately cliques are usually formed. But you must remember, cliques are formed because they satisfy a need within the group. If you are good at manipulating a group you may be able to manipulate the main clique into helping you achieve your goals without them knowing it. You need to be careful with cliques, if you try to manipulate them in the wrong way, no matter what your intentions, you may do more harm than good.

By establishing a good line of communication during the *forming stage*, you now have an opportunity to communicate the different stages of development to your players as they are going through each stage. Let them know that it is normal to dislike Sally because she is getting more attention. It is the anxieties related to each athlete trying to understand where they "fit" on the team that is the underlying cause of "*storming* (Henschen & Miner, 1989)." The coach can greatly reduce these anxieties by helping each player understand their role and performance expectations. One way you as a coach can do this is through sociometric testing which provides information about interpersonal relationships, attitudes, communication channels, and cliques (Henschen & Richards, 1985). As a high school coach, it is better to have an outside source administer the test. For

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instance, a school councilor or a sports psychology student, because by doing so you are more apt to receive honest answers to your questions. You should administer this type of test as you enter a *storming stage* or just after leaving this period. Never use any information to badger or put down an athlete. If this is done, you will lose all the trust you have worked so hard to establish.

Most coaches have a tendency to allow the *storming stage* to last much too long. Storming is healthy, but not for a very long period. Knowing when to move the group onto the next stage is often difficult for the coach. Often this time comes just prior to when the group is ready to move on to the first competitive situations. At this point, the individuality of the group members must begin to merge into a "we and us" mentality (Henschen & Miner, 1989).

NORMING

Characteristics:

- o athletes recognize and accept their roles
- o cooperation, mutual support, interaction
- o communicate openly and candidly
- o high degree of cohesion

The *norming stage* begins as individuals start to recognize and accept their

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roles in the athletic and social context. Knowing this they tend to be more orientated towards fulfilling team goals (Henschen & Miner, 1989). Tuckman, expressed that there is a development of group cohesion. The group becomes an entity by the acceptance of all group members who have a desire to maintain and perpetuate it's goals and aspirations. The group also has developed problem solving techniques.

To keep your team in the *norming stage* or help it reach the performing stage of development you need to prepare your athletes well. For instance, you're playing in the state play-offs and your team has never played in that particular gym or before a crowd that is so loud you can't hear yourself think. You could take them over to the gym and have them walk around so that they can get a feel for the gym. As to the crowd noise, you can devise a system of hand signals or signs at the beginning of the year so that they are use to reading your instructions. Another way to involve your athletes is to ask their opinion of strategies and make sure you listen to their opinions. In doing so you enable them to become a part of decision making processes. Remember that an injury or illness to a team leader or intervening circumstances can send the team back the *storming stage*. The following sums up the *norming stage* very well:

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"Team members typically come to know each other quite well during a season. As a consequence they develop a set of norms, artifacts, and expressions, which I refer to as their culture, a set of shared understandings is clearly implicated in the symbolic interactionist approach... I have argued that every group creates a culture of its own, which I have termed its idioculture. Members recognize that they have shared experiences and that these experiences can be referred to with the expectation that they will be understood by other members. Further, they can be employed to construct a social reality. The concept seems admirably suited to a study of sport teams... Culture serves to enhance group cohesion. This culture is not given to the team, but rather it emerges from their play. In other words, the team, in addition to creating a win-loss record, also creates a set of meanings." (Fine, 1986)

PERFORMING

Characteristics:

- o everything "works" during an athletic performance
- o cannot force this stage and it is difficult to maintain
- o single-mindedness in purpose
- o know that the only thing they control during competition are

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themselves

The best that the coach and team can realistically strive for is to work toward achieving and maintaining the *norming stage* and let the performance happen (Henschen & Miner, 1989).

In summery the things which are important to remember about the stages of development are that they are not automatic or sequential; that each stage has identifiable characteristics, and if a team reaches a certain level they will not necessarily stay at that level. By talking your athletes through the various stages you should be able to move them along to the stage which you desire to be in. Good luck coaches.

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MONOPOLIZING THE GREAT SIBERIAN RAILROAD

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Here I sit gazing out the window thinking I'm a long way from the neighborhood I grew up in in Farmington, Michigan with my boyhood pals Art DeCoste, Don Henrickson, and George Smith. George and I earned our first dollars together catching crickets and selling them to bait stores for a penny each. A few years later Art, Don and I caddied after school, on weekends, and during the summer for spending money. And in our spare time the four of us shot baskets in my driveway for hours on end and dreamed our dreams of adulthood. Where would we end up? What would we be doing? Who would we become?

Look at me now. I am 4,000 miles behind the Iron Curtain heading deeper and deeper into Siberia. I am a passenger on the Great Siberian Railroad traveling 5,260 miles across two continents and seven time zones to the Soviet Far East. My compartment mate is Victor Chaschookhin, an elderly man from the city of Pskof near the Baltic Republic of Estonia. There is little talk between us. But when we do talk it is in Russian.

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Victor tells me he is on his way to Vladivostok to visit his son who is in the navy. And I -- I am not sure what I'm doing here.

The pursuit of happiness, I am more and more inclined to believe, is a worthless notion. The goal is simply to make myself a more integrated, a more complete person. I am working toward my full-fledged citizenship on planet Earth. The urge in me is to grow, to become more aware as I accumulate more knowledge about the workings of things. This requires forsaking the familiar to wrestle with alien points of view, to reconcile opposite orientations to living. It is a stretching process, a way to get bigger.

I feel like I'm making progress toward something the nature of which I'm not quite sure; as though I will arrive eventually at some predetermined vantage point from which I will share a view with others who have come before me. Will there be peace or serenity in what I see? Bizarre thoughts. But on the Great Siberian Railroad there is time for all kinds of thinking.

I brought a game of Monopoly with me on this journey. I'm waiting for an opportune time to pull it out from under the seat and engage my fellow travelers in a friendly contest. I want to show them what makes America tick. Somewhere down the line where it seems most unlikely, where it seems most out of place. But not just yet.

Siberia is awesome. From the Ural Mountains east of Moscow, which separate Europe from Asia as well as European Russia from Siberia, to the city of Irkutsk by Lake Baikal, there is nothing but a flat plain covered with birch trees. Three thousand miles of birch trees. With every bend in the track you expect a different vista to unfold, but instead you get more of the same. It seems never-ending because it is never-ending.

That's what makes it Siberia.

From Irkutsk to Khabarovsk in the Soviet Far East is like the American west. The Trans-Baikal region near Irkutsk is mountainous with coniferous forests and swift moving streams. Farther down the line we cross the northern fringe of the Gobi Desert and brush past the border with China. Then it's the home stretch run among mixed forests again.

It is now day seven and I'm climbing the walls. The train has made almost fifty stops since Moscow, but none of them have been longer than a few minutes; hardly time to stretch one's legs. The trip has more of the flavor of an ocean voyage than a train ride, with brief stops at little islands of civilization. Then it's time to push off again as the train tacks its way across the vast sea of land.

But the final port of Khabarovsk is still several hours away. Now is the time to pull the ace from my sleeve, the diversion extraordinaire. Now is the time for Monopoly.

The players are Victor, our car hostess Ludmila, a South Korean journalist from Seoul, and myself. There is trouble at the outset. Victor and I want the same token -- the thimble. I could be deferential, but I choose not to be. Throughout my stay in the Soviet Union I have heard Americans described as a people made "soft" by abundance and wealth. I need to show Victor that it just isn't so, that we can be "hard" if we have to before him in the course of play. Grudgingly, he agrees.

I then introduce Victor and Ludmila to the concepts of private property and property rights. "If either of you land on the property I bought, I have the right to exact rent from you. You have the same right if I land on your property. Paneemahyete?" (Do you understand?) Eyeing me suspiciously, they reply "Da."

me suspiciously, they reply "Da."

Finally, to show them I'm not kidding, I inform the trio that whoever wins the game keeps the game. (This provides the incentive that socialism so sorely lacks.) With furtive glances -- and little trust -- we begin play.

Victor and I are out of the running within the first hour. (I don't think Victor ever really understood. He bought "Baltic Avenue" for nostalgic reasons. And me with my public good mentality.) But Ludmila and the South Korean go at each other tooth and nail. It's crazy. Here are two people whose countries do not officially recognize one another behaving as if they too were not speaking. Finally, after three hours, it is the wily Ludmila, the veteran of thirty years on the Great Siberian Railroad, who prevails.

Beaming with pride, Ludmila thanks me profusely as she sees me off the train in Khabarovsk and promises to give the Monopoly game to her grandchildren who live far away in the Ukrainian Republic of the USSR. I have done my part for America. I have planted the capitalist seed.

For a long time now the Soviet Union has isolated itself from the rest of the world. That isolation has contributed to an atmosphere of distrust and confrontation. But the USSR is beginning to open up, and, as it turns out, tourism may play the role of peacemaker. For what diplomats oftentimes have failed to see, we tourists have not. People everywhere have the same concerns for family, friends, and the dignity of work worth doing. There are common bonds that transcend our cultural and linguistic differences. At the most basic level, we are the same. Art, Don, George, Ludmila, Victor, the South Korean journalist and I -- we are one.

What Is Tourism and Who Are The Tourists?

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October 1990

Tourism is what tourists do. Although this is a trite statement it is the perspective a number of authors have taken to define tourism. In identifying what tourists do authors have traditionally described the structural elements of the activity. Morley (1990) in his review of international definitions of "tourist" highlighted several actions which describe a tourist. These definitions present a person who journeys away from home for a period of time of less than one year, who intends to return to place of residence within one year, who spends money not earned on the journey, who is traveling voluntarily, who indulges in activities that are not the same as residents of the destination, and who has the expectation of enjoyment from a change of daily activities.

The majority of the descriptions of a tourist delineate economic behavior, geographical location, activities different from the indigenous population, and to a lesser extent the motivations of the individual. As Morley (1990) suggests, another definition of tourist or tourism is not needed. What is useful to discuss is a model of tourism (Fig. 1) which describes the behavior of tourists and their subsequent impacts on service providers. For service providers in particular it is important to understand the interrelationships of a variety of factors which support the tourism phenomenon.

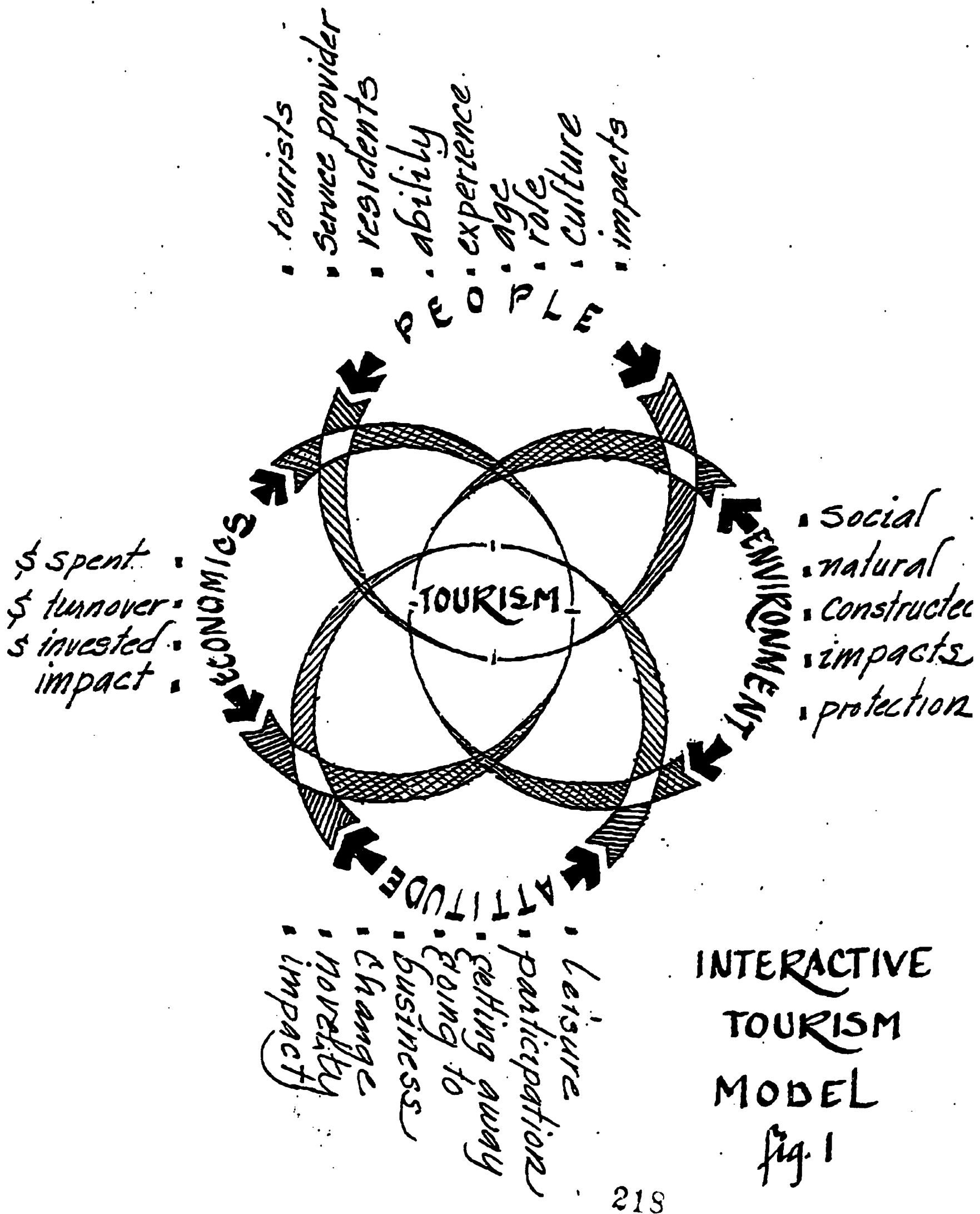
In an effort to describe tourism, this paper will deal with the four major components of tourism: 1) economics, 2) environment, 3) people, and 4) attitudes.

Economics

Two-hundred and sixty billion dollars a year are spent on tourism (Kelly 1989). This provides the opportunity for the ripple effect in local coffers. A good example of this effect is to follow a \$20 bill spent for gas while on a short vacation trip. The gas station owner takes a percentage for overhead and wages. The hourly wage earner takes his portion of the \$20 bill and purchases some food for the family at the local fast food restaurant. The owner of the restaurant takes one afternoon and plays golf. His portion of the money is spent on recreation. The golf course invests its portion on equipment to groom the course. Several companies now have benefitted from the tourist that spent money for gas as they were just passing through the town. The tourism dollar allows several people to invest their portion of the \$20 bill in many different ways. The book *The Community Tourism Industry Imperative* by Uel Blank suggests each dollar spent for food away from home represents 53.4 cents that becomes income for the local community. (Blank 1989).

Environment

Origin/destination studies are the first consideration when looking at tourism and the environment. Location of attractions is very important in understanding the patterns of



INTERACTIVE
TOURISM
MODEL
fig. 1

tourist travel. Unfortunately, this is one area where there is a dearth of information available through research.

Approximately 85% of all outdoor recreation lands are owned by the Federal Government. Much of these areas are major destination points. The Grand Canyon, Yellowstone, and Yosemite are but a few of these areas that are being loved to death.

The 1985 National Travel Survey suggests that roughly 1/2 of the people within one of nine regions of the United States (Fig. 2) will have their travel originate and terminate within the same district. It is apparent that regions with higher populations will put more pressure on their own regional natural resources.

Not all of the destination places are natural. Some are classified as "theme parks"; some are historical settings; some flora or fauna preserves; others may best be defined as tourist traps. Cohen (1979) has identified four types of touristic situations. These recorded in *Tourism Planning* by Clare Gunn (Gunn 1989 p. 121) are:

1. Authentic - Objectively the real thing.
2. Staged authenticity - Tourist space.
3. Denial of authenticity - May be real.
4. Contrived - Settings are not originals.

All four of these types of touristic areas can provide a rewarding experience. Events, pageants, and festivals fit into these four categories and are one of the main reasons for traveling. Unfortunately, strip-commercialism also is attracted to destination points and zoning laws are required to control the visual pollution. Developments in these areas can easily fit into the category of contrived.

Origin and destination studies show beginning and end points to a vacation but do not show the decision tree involved in going from point A to point B. Side trips, points of interest, and natural features put together a "chain of events" that bring the environment and the tourist together.

In environmental based tourism sites, some or all of the natural resources are involved. Air, water, and land not only provide a recreational experience but are subject to impact. With every action there is a reaction. It is recognized that touristic attractions are continually undergoing change. As change occurs with patterns of use the natural resources enter an adaptive posture in coping with not only the use, but misuse of the area. Not all change is bad and doesn't represent a degrading of the environment. It is true that pollution, acid rain and other environmental problems can be traced back to people's misuse of the environment. But on the other hand, both flora and fauna have been preserved for future generations because of their attraction and interest to the tourist.

People

Patterns of travel can be described in statistical form. Profile of the traveler can be constructed from data gathered by the Travel Tourism and Recreation Resource Center (TTRRC) at Michigan State University (Spotts 1986). From data gathered in 1986, we find that 70% of the travelers are married. Twenty-eight percent of the people have a

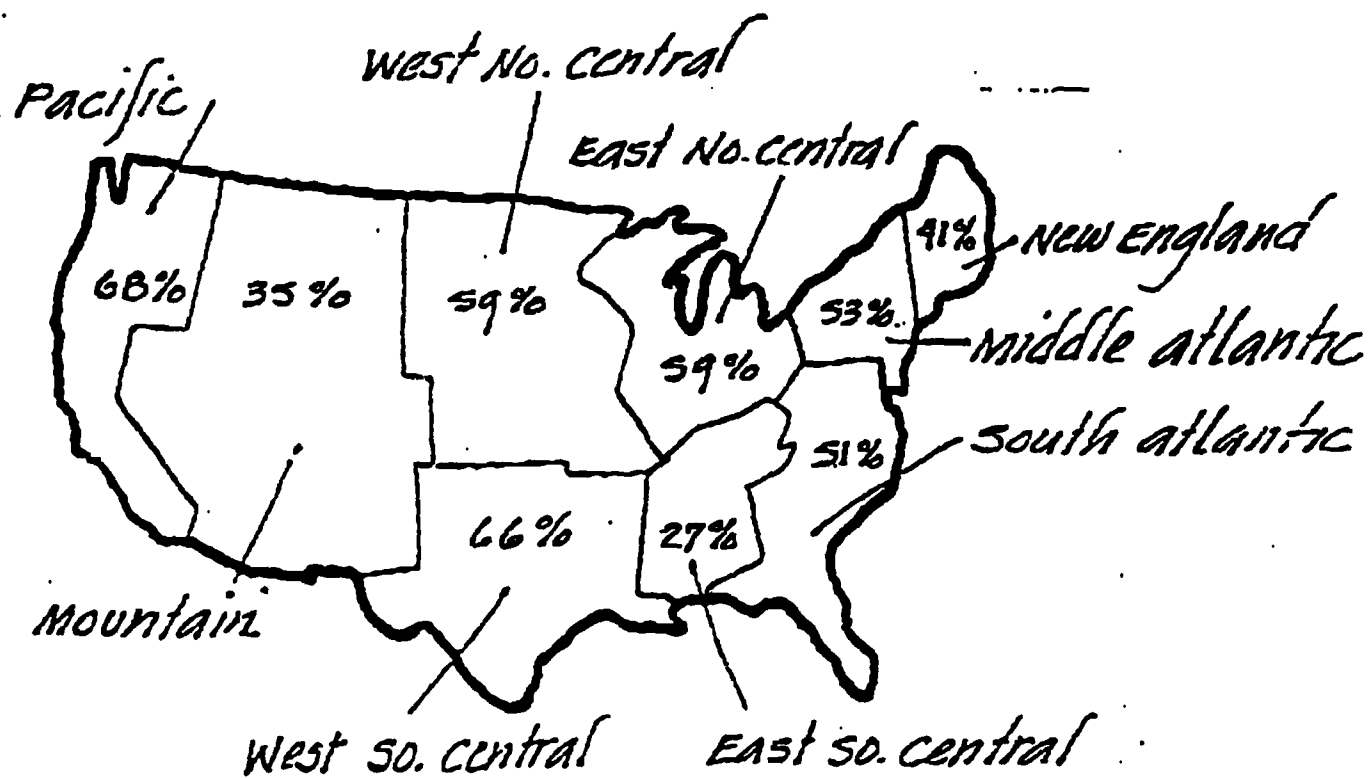


fig 2 % of people with origin/destination trips in the same region

high school degree and 25% have a college degree. Seventy-three percent own their own home while 26% rent. If we look at the type of activities that people show interest in while traveling, swimming is most popular (20%), hiking is second at 13%, fishing at 12% is third. Other types of activities drop into the lower single digit percentages. Reasons for traveling reveal an interesting side to tourism. The most popular reason is to escape from daily routines, the second was to make lasting memories. The most important attributes necessary for a successful trip are good scenery, friendly people, good places to stay, and reasonable prices. When investigating the purpose of the trips of 100% of the respondents 43% visit friends and relatives, 23% outdoor recreation, 14% sightseeing. Shopping scored at 2%. (Spotts 1989)

The preceding traveler profile is a cross section of people 18-65 years of age. It is realized that people's past experience, ability, age, cultural background and current role in life will continually effect change in desires when planning a vacation or extended trip. The most important part of people in the tourism sector is the attitude that goes into planning a trip, the feelings generated during the excursion, and the memories gathered through the course of their tourism experience.

Attitude

The attitudinal component of this model includes not only the tourist, but the service providers, and persons living within the geographical area. Both the study of tourism and provision of tourism services requires the inclusion of these important additional perspectives.

Tourists visit a destination for a variety of reasons including a change in environment, change of daily routine, and novelty. Fundamentally, the tourist is expecting to indulge in a leisure or recreation experience. Service providers must clearly understand the motivations of tourists and their expectations to adequately serve them. Tourism service managers must be sensitive to their employees' attitudes regarding the nature of their service, view of tourists, and their role in tourists' experiences. Success in the provision of tourism services requires the creation of an attitudinal environment that is conducive to enjoyable leisure experiences.

Attitudes which may impact the experience of the tourist less directly are those of non-service providers who live in the destination area with whom tourists may come in contact. Although more difficult to influence, the attitudes of people are a part of the tourism environment and must be addressed by the service provider to support positive leisure experiences of tourists. As with the other elements of this interactive model the attitudinal component influences the tourists' perception of what they are experiencing.

Summary

The Interactive Tourism Model (figure 1) depicts factors in the relations of economics, people, environment and attitudes which enables tourism to occur. As in any system characteristics in one element of the model will influence and impact other elements of the model. A sum of these interactions gives results in an understanding of tourism and helps to identify the real tourist.

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**PATTERNS OF SOCIAL RECREATION AND PLAY
IN A PIETISTIC COMMUNITY:
NAUVOO, ILLINOIS 1839-45**

**PAPER PRESENTED AT
THE INTERMOUNTAIN LEISURE SYMPOSIUM
BRIGHAM YOUNG UNIVERSITY
NOVEMBER 16, 1993**

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PATTERNS OF SOCIAL RECREATION AND PLAY
IN A PIETISTIC COMMUNITY:
NAUVOO, ILLINOIS 1839-45

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Introduction

In the early 1800's many religious groups and societies looked with suspicion on recreation activities believing that they had little purpose, were a waste of time and provided an opportunity for evil influence.

This attitude was not the case in the Mormon settlement of Nauvoo, Illinois where a pietistic community participated in a variety of social recreation pursuits to compliment religion, work, and help mitigate persecution. In fact, recreation was instrumental in unifying the city, creating friendships, and providing strength in hardship.

Research Methodology

The study employed historical research and included primary and secondary sources. Primary sources were original documents or remains, or a report by the observer from an eye-witness on the spot experience. Secondary sources were removed from the original experience and reported vicariously.

Authenticity and genuineness were examined in external criticism. Form, appearance, and design were viewed to determine if the materials were what they claimed to be.

Questions of accuracy and credibility were reviewed in internal criticism. Such items as error, authorship bias and prejudice were evaluated.

The extensive missionary effort by the Mormon Church was instrumental in bringing people together in Nauvoo from all over the United States as well as many foreign countries. These common bonds of religion extended into politics, economics, and especially social life. Social Recreation will be defined as those activities which were mutually enjoyed in the

company or society of others. Social Recreation emphasized amusement, delight, and pure entertainment more than the considerations for self-improvement or cultural development.

Public Events

Whenever an occasion was held which was open and available to the entire population, and when the occasion caused interaction and entertainment, the author regarded it as a public event.

Fourth of July

Because of patriotic tradition, the Fourth of July seems to have been one of the most widely held celebrations of the era. The day was usually spent in bell ringing, pistol shooting, and cannon firing. Food and drink were constantly on hand, and there was always an Independence Day Parade, public speeches, and evening dinners. Nauvoo held all of these activities and because of its convenient location on the mississippi, attracted large throngs of visitors. Church writer, William E. Berrett speaking of July 4th celebrations in Nauvoo explained:

Excursion boats from warsaw and even from St. Louis were common, the vessels docking at Nauvoo amidst much laughter and gaiety. Dances were held on such occasions, usually lasting until the early hours of the following morning. The beauty of the city and the hospitality of its people became known far and wide.¹

In 1841 The Times and Seasons reported that "several distinguished citizens" had come to Nauvoo to take part in the festivities.² The celebration in 1842 was witnessed by the usual guests, among them a few Indians and General Swanzey of Iowa. The General expressed himself as being very impressed by the activities. The only incident of the day happened when two

¹Berrett, The Restored Church, P. 160.

²times and Seasons, July 15, 1841.

strangers were picked up and fined \$10.25 for selling whiskey.¹ Hard liquor was forbidden in Nauvoo at this time. In 1843 an estimated 15,000 people assembled in the grove to hear a public speech by Orson Hyde who had recently returned from a trip to Palestine. That afternoon some steamboats arrived carrying passengers from Burlington, Iowa; Quincy, Illinois; and St. Louis, Missouri. About 900 were added to the congregation, after being escorted to the grove by the band. Makeshift seats of logs, stone, branches, etc. has been constructed for the visitors.²

Christmas

Due to the cold winter season, public Christmas celebrations were few in number. Many citizens, however, hosted private dinners or formed small caroling parties. It was customary for families and close friends to exchange modest gifts, such as: pictures, fans, vases, dolls, games, jewelry, candy, etc. One of the few public Christmas gatherings was arranged by Joseph Smith and held in the Mansion House in 1843. A large number of people had previously requested that such a celebration be sponsored. The activity began at 2:00 p.m. with the arrival of some fifty couples who promptly sat down to a prepared meal. Later in the evening, another meal was served after which the band was invited to play some music for dancing. the day was spent in a "a most cheerful and friendly manner."³

New Years

New Years was spent much like Christmas with the exception of a lot more noise. Pounding, shouting, shooting, and other assorted noise makers

¹Smith, History of the Church, Vol. V, pp. 56-57,

²Matthias F. Cowley, Wilford Woodruff, History of His Life and Labors (Salt Lake City: Bookcraft, 1964), p. 187.

³Smith, History of the Church, Vol. VI, p. 133.
Nauvoo Neighbor, December 13, 1843.

were used to welcome the New Year. In 1843 a public party held with dancing continuing until early morning. The next year some of the men decided to arrange a dinner for some of the poor. One generous brother donated \$10.00 to get the project started.¹

Other Holidays

Little mention is made in the literature about the observance of other holidays in Nauvoo. Thanksgiving, for example, was seldom observed except among the Eastern families, and the anniversary of St. John's Day was commemorated by those belonging to the Masonic Lodge.² Although no mention is made of them, there is contemporary evidence indicating that the people of that time also celebrated April Fool's Day, Mayday, and St. Valentine's Day.³

Church Anniversary and Temple Cornerstone Laying

Ever since the organization of the Mormon Church on April 6, 1830, there has been held a regular quarterly conference on that date each year. Congregations gather from all parts of the work for religious meetings, reunions, socials, etc. In Nauvoo these conferences were conducted on schedule and attended by townsfolk and visitors alike. The most impressive of these meetings took place in 1841 which date was also the specified time for the cornerstone ceremony for the Nauvoo Temple. The significance of that important event was carefully recorded by Joseph Smith as he explained the affairs of the day:

The first day of the twelfth year of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints! At an early hour the several companies comprising the "Nauvoo Legion," with two volunteer

¹Smith, History of the Church, Vol. VI, p. 155; Vol. VII, p. 327.

²Partridge, "Death of a Mormon Dictator," p. 591.

Smith, History of the Church, Vol. V, p. 446.

³Riegel, Young America, p. 341.

companies from Iowa Territory, making sixteen companies in all, assembled at their several places of rendezvous, and were conducted in due order to the ground assigned for general review. The appearance, order, and movements of the Legion, were chaste, grand, and imposing, and reflected great credit upon the taste, skill, and tact of the men comprising said Legion. we doubt whether the like can be presented in any other city in the western country. At half-past seven o'clock a.m., the fire of artillery announced the arrival of Brigadier-Generals Law, and Don Carlos Smith, at the front of their respective cohorts; and at eight o'clock Major-General Bennett was conducted to his post, under the discharge of cannon, and took command of the Legion.

At half-past nine o'clock a.m., Lieutenant-General Smith, with his guard, staff and field officers arrived at the ground, and were presented with a beautiful silk national flag by the ladies of Nauvoo, which was respectfully received and hailed by the firing of cannon, and borne off by Colonel Robinson, the cornet, to the appropriate position in the line; after which the lieutenant-General with his suite passed the line in review.

At twelve m., the procession arrived upon the Temple ground, enclosing the same in a hollow square, with Lieutenant-General Smith, Major-General Bennett, Brigadier-Generals Wilson, Law, and Don Carlos Smith, their respective staffs, guards, field officers, distinguished visitors, choir, band, &c., in the center, and the ladies and gentlemen citizens, surrounding in the interior. The superior officers, together with the banner, architects, principal speaker, &c., were duly conducted to the stand at the principal cornerstone, and the religious services were commenced by singing from page 65 of the new hymn book.¹

After the song, Sydney Rigdon addressed the assembly, Upon conclusion of his remarks, the south-east cornerstone was lowered into place and a benediction was pronounced by General Smith. At that point, the ceremony was adjourned for one hour. When the service reconvened, the three remaining stones were laid in place with a prayer offered on each one. The services were then declared closed. One of the interesting facts about the occasion was that there was no swearing or drinking. At the conclusion of the day, the following remarks were made in summary of the days activities:

¹Smith, History of the Church, Vol. IV, p. 327.

In conclusion, we will say we never witnessed a more imposing spectacle than was presented on this occasion, and during the sessions of the conference. Such a multitude of people moving in harmony, in friendship, in dignity, told in a voice not easily misunderstood, that they were a people of intelligence, and virtue and order; . . .¹

Masonic Activities

In April, 1843 a Masonic Lodge was installed in Nauvoo because most of the chief men of the city were members of the Masonic Order. The inauguration service was brief with only one talk by Sydney Rigdon. The company then marched in procession to a vacant lot where the band played some fine music. A trench was then dug for the barbecuing of the whole pig.² Some two months later on June 24, the cornerstone was laid for the construction of a new Masonic hall. A procession marched from the lodge room to the site of construction where Hyrum Smith did the honors of placing the stone. Hymns followed, then the spectators went to the grove to hear an oration by John Taylor. A dinner followed with about 200 eating.³

Opening of the Mansion House

On October 2, 1843 a dinner was given in connection with the official opening of the Mansion House. The cost was \$1.00 per couple with about 300 in attendance. The dinner was well organized and consisted of a plentiful supply of food arranged on two long tables. One participant expressed the feelings of the group when he stated:

A more happy, intelligent and sociable company, we never associated with. Our fare was well elected, rich and sumptuous, and there was complete order throughout, and everything was conducted so mechanically and politely that it did honor to Mr. and Mrs. Smith.⁴

¹Ibid., p. 331.

²Haven, "A Girl's Letters from Nauvoo," p. 630.

³Smith, History of the Church, Vol. V, p. 446.

⁴Nauvoo Neighbor, October 4, 1843.

Haven, "A Girl's Letters from Nauvoo," p. 630.

Seventies Hall Dedication

The dedication of the Seventies Hall took place over a five day period from December 26, to December 30, 1844. The dedicatory service was repeated each day in order for all the Seventies and their families to have part in the ceremonies. There were about 1,000 Seventies divided into fifteen quorums. The choir sang and the band played, with the service being described as "touching, pathetic, grand, and sublime."¹ Refreshments were provided to the congregations as they listened to the numerous discourses delivered by the speakers. The clerk for the five days was John D. Lee who best summed up the experience by saying:

The remembrance of this glorious jubilee will never be erased from the minds of those who were participants. Each family was provided with fruits, nuts, and every dessert that heart could wish. Well might it be said that the saints enjoyed a feast of fat things.²

Temple Capstone Celebration

By May 24, 1845 the Temple had been completed to a point for the setting of the capstone. A large body of people were gathered for the occurrence. The Brass Band opened the service with a hymn called "The Nightingale." The mortar was then spread and Brigham Young set the capstone. The band then began playing the "Capstone March." The congregation was so thrilled by the service that they began shouting "Hosannas" which they repeated three times. Brigham Young then closed the meeting by announcing that all the workmen could take the day off.³

¹Smith, History of the Church, Vol. VII, p. 330.

²Smith, History of the Church, Vol. VII, p. 345.

Brooks, Diary of Hosea Stout, p. 13.

³Smith, History of the Church, Vol. VII, pp. 417-18.

Smith Family Dinner

Bishops Whitney and Miller invited the public to a dinner which they had arranged in honor of the Smith family. the band was in attendance and a number of complimentary toasts were proposed using plain water.¹

Big Field Dinner

The trustees and officers of the Big Field Association offered a free harvest dinner on September 5, 1845. Several sittings were required to accommodate the 616 who had arrived to eat. The sponsors must have anticipated a large crowd since the eating table was build 150 feet long.²

Parades

In connection with important events, parades were among the feature attractions. The stately Nauvoo Legion seemed to claim the major attention on such occasions due to its sensational marching and drilling routines. Sometimes the Legion would even perform sham battles to the delight of anxious onlookers. On parade days the militia dressed in whatever uniform that could be found. One report said that the men dressed according to individual tastes with all wearing a scarf, badge, or stripe of some bright color.² This report was further confirmed by an article which appeared in the Peoria Register and North-western Gazette for December 3, 1841. referring to the Legion it stated:

They presented the appearance of having searched the world over and all the armories to boot, to obtain their military dress and equipment. They seemed to be in truth a motley crew: Some with one pistol; some with two; others with a pike or harpoon; and we even saw some with a brace of horse pistols, a gun and sword.

¹Ibid., Vol. VII, p. 433.

²Nauvoo Neighbor, September 10, 1845.

Other writers have represented the Legion as wearing matching blue coats with epaulets, white trousers, high top boots, and triangular hats.¹ This description may have been true for certain members with means, but for the troops at large it was quite unlikely that any such uniforms existed.

Most of the military marching was done in two cohorts, the first consisting of "flying artillery lancers, visiting companies of dragons, cavalry, lancers, and riflemen." The second cohort sported "artillery lancers, riflemen, light infantry, and infantry." A typical parade order is illustrated in Figure 19.

Nauvoo parades became known far and wide throughout Illinois and Missouri. On May 7, 1842 a spectacular parade and sham battle was held. the event was so acclaimed that Judge Stephen A. Douglas adjourned his circuit court in Carthage to be in attendance.² The Times and Seasons ran a story on the days activities which read in part:

We had a general review of the Nauvoo Legion, on Saturday the 7th inst. The Legion presented a beautiful appearance, the officers of the different cohorts, battalions and companies, equipped themselves will: and in passing through their various evolutions, both officers and men, showed a knowledge of military tactics, far in advance of what could have been expected from the little experience they have had and the short time the Legion has been formed. They have very much improved both in good discipline and uniform, since last year. Many thousands of spectators were present; no accident occurred; but good will, order, peace, harmony, and hilarity was manifested; both by the companies and the spectators.³

Another impromptu parade was hurriedly arranged as a result of Joseph Smith's being released from two Missouri captors. As the beloved prophet entered the city he was surrounded by a train of carriages and a pair of the

¹John Henry Evans, Charles Coulson Rich: Pioneer Builder of the West (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936), p. 75.

²Smith, History of the Church, Vol. V, p. 3.

³Times and Seasons, May 16, 1842.

Nauvoo bands. Some of the horses had been decorated by attaching prairie flowers to the bridles. The streets were lined to make a path for the caravan. Charlotte Haven was one of the participants on that day and wrote of the parade makeup:

I wish you could have seen the procession as it passed through the city; Joseph with his wife, Sister Emma, as she is called led the van; she with white nodding plumes, followed by a half-mile of the populace in every wheeled vehicle that could be mustered, drawn by horses and oxen.¹

One of the fancy entries in most parades seems to have been a group of ladies riding together on horses. Some reports say that they wore colorful plumes, white dresses, and carried flags.²

Another anticipated entry on parade day was the presentation of the Junior Legion. These were young lads who were organized into a marching and riding group by a Mr. Bailey. They practiced basic military maneuvers along with precision marching riding.³ Irene Hascall attended the parade on July 4, 1845 and described 250 boys with uniforms who looked "very beautiful."⁴ An interesting experience connected with the Junior Legion happened one day when a tactical sham battle was staged between the boys and their fathers. The boys armed themselves with pots, pans, horns, branches, rocks, etc. and set up such a racket that the adult Legion horses became frightened and began to hesitate and scatter. Finally, Joseph Smith was able to calm his faithful horse, Charlie, and successfully disperse the playful boys.⁵

¹Haven, "A Girl's Letters from Nauvoo," p. 634.

²Beardsley, Joseph Smith and His Mormon Empire, p. 227.

Smith, History of the Church, Vol. V, p. 383.

³Smith and Hulmes, Joseph Smith III, p. 46.

⁴Hascall, original letters, July 6, 1845.

⁵Fawn M. Browdie, No Man Knows My History (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1966), p. 271.

Special Events

From time to time during Nauvoo's history there were special outside allurements which brought exotic performances to the city. The most glamorous and widely publicized of these events were circuses and menageries while smaller attractions also claimed many interested followers. On the 6th of May, 1843 a Mr. Vickers was in town to give a performance of magic and an exhibition of wire dancing. In August of the same year a weight lifting show was performed by a Mr. LaForest.¹ The next month brought a visit from the famous Maybe and How Traveling Circus. Seats were advertised at fifty cents for the box and twenty-five cents for the pit.²

The most renown repertories of the day were animal menageries with their rare assemblages of wild beasts. Riegel gives a description of the composition of a traditional menagerie:

At its poorest it might include a sad bear, a moth-eaten lion, and a few depressed monkeys. At its best is numbered dozens of rare animals: such as the tiger, lion, leopard, elephant, hyena, panther, zebra, camel, llama, kangaroo, and gnu. The latest additions were the rhinoceros and camelopard (giraffe), which caused startled amazement among the awe-struck yokels.³

Transportation for such a show was accomplished by the use of large caravans of wagons. For the actual display, a canvas tent was pitched which included a portable stage, seats, and if wealthy enough, a few gaslights.⁴ On the 21st of July, 1845 Nauvoo was visited by one of the best animal menageries in the country. The newspaper advertised the occurrence under the caption of a "Grand Zoological Exhibition." The notice read:

¹Smith, History of the Church, Vol. V, p. 384, 536.

²Nauvoo Neighbor, August 23, 1843.

³Riegel, Young America, p. 347.

⁴Ibid., p. 348

The proprietors respectfully announce that their extensive collections of **LIVING WILD ANIMALS** will be exhibited at Nauvoo, on Monday the 21st of July.

This establishment embraces the interests of New York and Philadelphia Zoological Institutes, making it the **LARGEST OF THE KIND NOW IN THE UNITED STATES.**

The famous Duboise will appear with his trained animals in some of the most beautiful scenes, and, among other interesting performances will harness and drive a large **NUMIDIAN LION.** On the entrance into Nauvoo, on the 21st **TWO LARGE ELEPHANTS** will be harnessed to the Band Car and precede the whole retinue of horses, wagons, &c., to the place of exhibitions.

Doors open at 1 o'clock p.m., admittance 30 cents -- children, ten years of age, half price.¹

The amusement of the day was increased by an untimely thunder storm. The rain came down in such torrents that it caused the spectators to take refuge in the Seventies Hall. A strong wind also accompanied the storm and eventually blew the tent down. Soon the Nauvoo police has to be called in to assist the circus personnel and regulate the crowds. It was reported the "dimes, dandies, and damsels, how the 'unmentionables' did modify their lower corders."²

Parties and Socials

Parties were extremely popular in Nauvoo whether they were formal or informal. Kindred interests were strong and close friendships abounded. In addition, long hard work days prompted a desire for relaxing visits, socials, and recreation. Just prior to July 4, 1841 the officers of the Nauvoo Legion got together with their ladies for an elaborate dinner party in the grove. That same year Mr. Hiram Kimball hosted a party for some of the Church leaders.³

¹Nauvoo Neighbor, July 9, 1845.

²Ibid., July 23, 1845.

Brooks, Diary of Hosea Stout, p. 53.

³Smith, History of the Church, Vol. IV, p. 382, 484.

In March of 1842 Wilford Woodruff invited some of his personal friends over to help him celebrate his own birthday.¹

January of 1843 was ushered in by Joseph Smith inviting several friends and associates over for a combination dinner party and fifteenth wedding anniversary. The guest arrived at 10:00 a.m. and the day began with singing. Socializing continued until 2:00 p.m. when a meal was served. The dinner required four sittings in order to get everyone fed. The remainder of the day was passed by telling jokes and interesting stories. At 6:00 p.m. the party broke up.²

Another interesting party, this time for the younger folks, was held at the home of Sydney Rigdon. The affair was arranged by Rigdon's two daughters, Sarah and Eliza. After a supper of turkey, chicken, beef, vegetables, pies, cake, etc., some singing was enjoyed. Entertainment was provided next by two little girls who sang, with help from their mother, "The Battle of Michigan." Some original dancing followed ending with kissing games. Game playing then continued with such standards as the Miller, Grab, and Fox and Geese. By 9:00 p.m. everyone was ready for a second edition of supper and the festivities finally came to an end at midnight.³

Brigham Young planned a private house warming when he had finally completed his new Nauvoo dwelling, and early in 1844 Sarah Richards gave a party in honor of eight couples, all of whom had been baptized members of the Mormon Church in Preston, England. the home of John Taylor was the scene of another social for the General Authorities of the Church. During late 1844 and early 1845 the literature mentions a host of social gatherings. A

¹Cowley, Wilford Woodruff, p. 160.

²Smith, History of the Church, Vol. V, p. 252.

³Haven, "A Girl's Letters from Nauvoo," p. 626.

Mr. Coolidge, Brothers Dunn and Tufts, David D. Years, Chandler Rogers, and Erastus Snow are among those mentioned as being involved.¹

Throughout the summer of 1845 the Nauvoo Police Department conducted some very fascinating parties. The first was held on April 12. It was a reunion where the group reminisced the past. A new song was made up during the repast.² In July the police met again. This time they invited the band and made beer, wine, and cake available in excessive quantities.³ By August, watermelons had arrived in town and could be purchased at Grub and Richie's Store. This influenced the police to meet again for a watermelon bust on the 29th of August.⁴

To commemorate his wife's birthday, Howard Egan undertook a party which is an excellent example of the nature of Nauvoo socials. Hosea Stout, one of the guests, wrote:

. . . Br. Egan came with a buggy after me to go to a small party at his house to celebrate his wife's birthday. I went--we had a most agreeable entertainment and had a very delicious supper well served up, plenty of wine and beer and other good drinks. The feast was mostly entertained with music, (i.e.) three violins, bass viola and horn, with occasional singing and agreeable conversation. Br. William Clayton, Wm. Pitt, Hutchinson, Smithie and Kay were the musicians. We continued until about twelve o'clock at night when we dismissed and went away. I have been to but few such agreeable parties in my life where a few were assembled together with the same good feelings of friendship. All seemed of one heart and partook of the enjoyment of the good things and the comforts of

¹Claire Noall, Intimate Discipline: A Portrait of Willard Richards (Salt Lake City, Utah: University of Utah Press, 1957, p. 308.

Ibid., p. 464.

Smith, History of the Church, Vol. VII, P. 238, 328, 363, 389

Earl T. Pardoe, Lorin Farr, Pioneer (Provo, UT: Brigham Young University Press, 1953), p. 102.

²Smith, History of the Church, Vol. VII. p. 395.

³Brooks, Hosea Stout, p. 50.

⁴Nauvoo Neighbor, August 6, 1844. Brooks, Hosea Stout, p. 59.

life with that dignity which bespoke that they know how to appreciate the blessings of God in the way that he designed we should. May they all have many more such good and happy nights.¹

On October 13, 1845 there was a social gathering at the home of Heber C. Kimball with the special charm of Mrs. Ann Hughlings Pitchforth playing the piano.²

Temple Parties

As the Nauvoo Temple neared completion, it became the scene for many parties and socials. On August 27, 1845 The Nauvoo Neighbor related the story of a melon eating party taking place around an eighty-seven foot table. Probably the gayest of all Temple parties happened the evening of December 30, 1845. The day had been spent in administering religious ordinances and by 8:30 p.m. a halt was called. It was then declared a time for recreation. Brigham Young explained:

The labors of the day having been brought to a close at so early an hour, viz: eight-thirty, it was thought proper to have a little season for recreation, accordingly Brother Hanson was invited to produce his violin, which he did, and played several lively airs accompanied by Elisha Averett on his flute, among others some very good lively dancing tunes. This was too much for the gravity of Brother Joseph Young who indulged in dancing a hornpipe, and was soon joined by several others, and before the dance was over several French fours were indulged in. The first was opened by myself and Sister Whitney and Elder Heber C. Kimball and partner. The spirit of dancing increased until the whole floor was covered with dancers . . .³

After the dancing, Erastus Snow sang a tune entitled "Upper California." This was followed by a selection from Sister Whitney. Some general visiting continued thereafter until the evening ended with Brigham Young offering a

¹Brooks, Hosea Stout, p. 55.

²Nauvoo Restoration Incorporated, Heber C. Kimball Home, Pamphlet, Nauvoo, Illinois, n.d.

³Smith, History of the Church, Vol. VII, pp. 557-58.

benediction. Again on the second and sixth of January 1846, socials took place in the Temple. For the second, three musicians, William Clayton, J.F. Hutchinson, and James Smithies, performed several beautiful pieces of music.¹ During the final work week before the Temple's dedication, the workmen and others were treated to a "barrel of wine" which had been reserved for that occasion.²

Wedding Parties

Weddings were happy experiences which were eagerly awaited by friends and family alike. The customary wedding was celebrated in the evening and followed by a reception, supper, and social. This pattern was undoubtedly reinforced by a remainder contained in The Nauvoo Neighbor on October 1, 1842. It stated:

According to the custom of all civilized nations, marriage is regulated by laws and ceremonies: therefore, we believe, that all marriages in this Church of Christ of Latter-Day Saints, should be solemnized in a public meeting or feast, prepared for that purpose. . .

Almost weekly the columns of the local papers announced the names of those recently wed. One typical wedding took place on October 3, 1843 in the Mansion House. The nuptial was opened with a song and prayer; the ceremony performed, then refreshments consisting of cake, apple pie, and cold water. Next, the company walked to one of the convenient halls for a reception which included anecdotes, dancing, and games until 1:00 a.m.³ When Leonard Schussler married Margaret Hartley in November, 1844 the festivities even extended to the printing office as reported by one of the workers:

¹Ibid., p. 561, 564.

²Juanita Brooks, John Doyle Lee, Zealot, Pioneer Builder, Scapegoat (Glendale California: Arthur H. Clark Co., 1962). pp. 86-87.

³Haven, "A Girl's Letters from Nauvoo," pp. 637-38.

Well gentle readers, start not! The printers are not always forgotten on occasions like these, though it is seldom we are called upon to drink to the health of the bride, yet on this occasion, we did so, to a jug of good ale, and a loaf of splendid cake, from the hands of the fair bride herself; for which, from the FORMAN down to the last DEVIL in the office, all unite in wishing the bride and bridegroom all the happiness that belongs to the hymnal state.¹

Riverboat Excursions

Social Recreation was truly in its glory during a riverboat excursion on the Mississippi. Each season the pleasure cruises became popular pastime events for hundreds of people. Usually the river became navigable by April with heavy traffic through July, August, and September. the literature mentions about fifteen different boats which ran past Nauvoo. Aitken estimated that the river together with its tributaries contained 13,000 miles which could be traveled by steamboat and twice that amount by flatboat.² The boats were variously equipped and designed with each advertising some special marketing feature. An advertisement from the steamship Mendota illustrated routes and accommodations:

Regular Packet, between St. Louis, Nauvoo, Fort Madison, Burlington, Oquaka, Bloomington, Rock island, Galeva, Dubuque, Polosi, Prairie du Chucu, and all intermediate landings. The New and Splendid Steamer 'Mendota' (Robt. A. Reilly, Master) . . . this boat has been built expressly to run on the upper Mississippi; her accommodations, for both Cabin and Deck passengers, are superior, she is also provided with Evans' safety Guard, to prevent the explosion of her boilers.³

River travel was becoming so important to the new city that in 1842 two Mormon Craftsmen went to work and built a small boat which they

¹Nauvoo Neighbor, November 6, 1844.

²Aitken, Jourmay Up the Mississippi, p. 34.

³Nauvoo Neighbor, February 28, 1844.

christened the Maid of Iowa. Dan Jones, one of the builders, soon took over the duties of ship's Captain.¹ At 8:00 a.m. on May 9, 1843 a party of about 100 adults, along with the band, boarded the Maid of Iowa for an excursion. They were sent off in good style by a salute from the cannon. Parley P. Pratt delivered an address enroute. It was reported that "much good humor and hilarity prevailed." Stops were made at Burlington, Fort Madison, and Shockoquon, Iowa. A month later, Smith issued notes in the amount of \$1,375 and became half owner of the new ship.² Thereafter, the vessel was known as the official Church steamboat. Two days later, a pleasure trip departed to view the scenic St. Anthony Falls.³

Over fifty couples of young folks took a trip to Quincy on Saturday, June 10, 1843. "Joy was pictured in every countenance" and they "all went off with smiling faces" as the band struck up some merry music.⁴ The next Saturday was an outing for the Temple workers who steamed up the river for a visit to the Iowa penitentiary. We learn of the feelings of those on board by the remarks of the passenger:

On Saturday morning, the 17th inst., a large and respectable company of ladies and gentlemen took passage on board the steamboat, "Maid of Iowa," for the purpose of passing the day in a pleasure excursion to Shockoquon, a little town situated some thirty miles up the river. The day was delightful and everything seemed to promise an agreeable trip. The company set out with light and joyful hearts, and the Nauvoo Band played a pleasant air as the steamer pushed her way up the broad current of the Mississippi.⁵

Other unique journeys were taken at about this same time. One boating party was organized to have an on-board picnic and dancing. Another trip was an

¹Flanders, Nauvoo, Kingdom on the Mississippi, p. 161.

²Smith, History of the Church, Vol. V, p. 384, 417.

³Haven, "A Girl's Letters from Nauvoo," p. 631.

⁴Nauvoo Neighbor, June 17, 1843.

⁵Ibid., June 21, 1843.

extended two week journey, and yet another was a shopping venture to St. Louis.¹ By 1845 excursions were being strongly advocated for recreation purposes. One brief notice which was printed in the paper stressed the importance of river journeys to Social Recreation but added a slight warning:

There is certainly much pleasure in appearance if nothing more, to take a trip in fair weather upon the Mississippi, we frequently notice this recreation, and say: enjoy life, but be careful; don't let a squall capsize ye, like speculation.²

The youngsters of Nauvoo also derived recreation from the steam boats. Whenever a boat landed, they would gather around and sell homemade hats and canes.³ Tours and outings were not the only recreation pursuits provided by the steamers; for on July 4, 1842 a crowd gathered along the river banks to watch a race between a pair of the excursion boats.⁴

Sports

The most physically stressing forms of Social Recreation were the Sports Contests. Some of the people were active participants while others were content to remain onlookers. In either case, sports brought many people together for oft-repeated activities.

Swimming

During the hot summer months, the Mississippi offered a natural place for swimming. Swimsuits were scarce and too expensive while regular clothes were too valuable to be cut off. These circumstances made the

¹Smith, History of the Church, Vol. v, p. 384, 417.

Noall, Willard Richards, Intimate Disciple, p. 376.

Haven, "A Girl's Letters from Nauvoo," p. 150.

Nauvoo Neighbor, September 29, 1843.

²Ibid., May 21, 1845.

³Ibid., August 13, 1845.

⁴Elbert A. Smith, Timbers for the Temple (Independence, Missouri, 1922), pp. 43-50.

matches were friendly, but in one instance a reporter from The Burlington Hawkeye told of a fight in which Porter Rockwell got mad and chased Hiram Kimball all over town.¹

Baseball

Baseball was played by the men and boys of Nauvoo on Saturdays. A variation of the modern game was used which was known as Old Cat. One Old Cat had only a pitcher, a catcher, and one base. Two Old Cat had two bases and so on according to the number of players. The batter would hit the ball and run the bases. He was out when the ball was caught in the air or on one bounce.² The ball was often an old rag wrapped tightly with string and the bat a trimmed hickory stick. Bases were fashioned by a pile of sticks, rocks, or sometimes even an "accommodating cow."³

Fencing

After the organization of the Nauvoo Legion, the art of fencing or the "sword exercise" became an esteemed form of diversion. As early as 1842 lessons were taught under the direction of a Colonel Brewer.⁴ By 1844 H. Stanley, an expert swordsman, came to town and immediately started instruction. His enthusiastic notice read:

. . . a gentleman recently from the North, is now in this city giving instruction in the art of fencing to such as wish. -- His skill and moderate terms, render the opportunity highly favorable to such as wish to maneuver in the cuts, thrusts, and salutes, with grace, precision and dexterity. As he will continue through the winter all that wish to improve the chance, will have time.⁵

¹Burlington Hawkeye, October 3, 1844.

²Harold Seymour, Baseball: The Early Years (New York: Oxford University Press, 1960), p. 7.

³Pardoe, Lorin Farr, p. 32.

⁴Smith, History of the Church, Vol. V. p. 84.

⁵Nauvoo Neighbor, December 11, 1844.

A few weeks later Stanley announced free tuition to anyone interested.¹ At the conclusion of Mr. Stanley's courses, John d. Lee began teaching fencing. He opened three schools with fifty to a school. Two dollars was the fee for thirteen lessons. Lee was very successful in the venture making \$600 which he used to finish building a home.²

Boating

Besides the large steamboats, there were a host of smaller boating rigs which were utilized on the river. Some of the launches were rare indeed. Christopher Merkley tells of making a raft with two house logs which were fastened together with pieces of board. The raft was completed by the addition of two flat doors laid unfastened on top of the boards.³ The Stringham boys built a similar raft from harvested trees which were later converted to timbers for a home.⁴ there were also some canoes which had been beveled from trees. When Henry Caswell visited Nauvoo, he rode in one which had been carved from a tree trunk and would transport thirteen adults.⁵ A few sailboats could be rented for the more adventurous who dared pass over the rapids. This type of recreation was billed as an inviting experience:

To those who wish to ride over the rapids of the beautiful Mississippi, I would say, I shall keep a good sail boat near Manhards Steam Mill for the accommodation and passengers to Keokuk. The waters purl along free as air-- therefore, we will land them at any convenient point on either side of the river after a pleasant sail on the bosom of the

¹Ibid., December 24, 1844.

²John D. Lee, Mormonism Unveiled: Life and Confessions of John D. Lee (St. Louis, Missouri: M. & Mason, 1891), pp. 156-57.

³Christopher Merkley, Biography of Christopher Merkley (Salt Lake City: J. H. Parry and Company, 1887), p. 25.

⁴Anderson, Appleton Mile Harmon, pp. 170-71.

Caswell, Three Days at Nauvoo, p.7.

"fathers of waters, and I will endeavor to make engagements for a carriage, that those may take at the waters edge who desire it, after regaling if they choose upon beer, cake, &c. &c. Those who visit our city and wish to view the scenery on the islands, or Iowa; will be conveyed there also. All things will be done decently and in good order. Come and See.¹

By far the most eccentric of all river activity, and the most alarming to parents was the practice by certain youth of climbing aboard huge chunks of floating ice and riding for short distances.²

Sleighing

When the snow fell in sufficient quantities for supporting sleighs, many outfits were converted to snow vehicles by attaching runners. The participants kept warm by using blankets, mattresses, straw, rugs, etc. for covering. Jacob Scott reported that Nauvoo winters were long and cold and that conditions for suitable sleighing remained for about four months.³ The Mississippi was also used by the sleighers when freezing made conditions safe. Brief journeys to neighboring towns were quite a novelty on such a side expanse of ice. Charlotte Haven told of one trip she took to Fort Madison, Iowa:

The day was mild and sunny, and our horse was so fleet, he seemed to fly over the smooth ice, in and out around many little wooded islands, and in less than half an hour we were at fort Madison, a thriving little village on the Iowa side ten miles above Nauvoo. We stopped at a little tavern, took a little refreshment of tea and cake, and returned home. The novelty of the drive was quite delightful.⁴

Horse Racing

In most large cities of the day, horse racing was one of the major

¹Nauvoo Neighbor, August 13, 1845.

²Smith, *History of the Church*, Vol. VI, p. 124.

³Inez Smith Davis, *The Story of the Church* (8th ed., rev.; Independence, Missouri: Herald Publishing House, 1948), p. 305.

⁴Haven, "A Girl's Letters from Nauvoo," p. 623.

attractions. Nauvoo, however, was unlike contemporary cities because of its religious nature. Gambling in all forms was forbidden by the Church and horse racing was regarded as a chief form of betting; also, resulting in associated evils as drinking and swearing. On June 11, 1845 The Nauvoo Neighbor printed an article which generally followed the official Church attitude. It stated:

There has been so much racing the past season, at the various courses in the United States, but as horse racing, gambling, swearing, drinking and the other things, have so little respectability connected with them, in point of honor and virtue, we have not thought it advisable to chronicle the results.

Even at this, the author is of the opinion that horse racing still took place. It is quite likely considering the many fine horses, so much prairie, and the contemporary popularity of racing, that some races were held at least on an informal basis. Some proof for this lies in a statement by Bill Hickman who described his love for horses and his participation in racing, including betting.¹

Miscellaneous Sports

Historical citations refer to other sports periodically although quantitative and descriptive references are scanty. These will be listed below but in most cases, descriptions are drawn from coexisting evidence contained in sources outside Nauvoo.

Pulling Sticks

These were contests of strength using sticks, broom handles, or similar devices. One contest involved the participants sitting on the ground feet to feet. The object was to pull the opponent over or off balance. A second

¹J. H. Beadle Esq., ed, Brigham's Destroying Angel (New York: The International Publishing Co., 1872), p. 46.

method was to have contestants stand and then see who could pull the other across a line. A third variation was to drive stakes into the ground and then determine a winner by the first one to work his stake free.¹

Horseshoes and Quoits

These were both pitching games. Horseshoes were the regular equipment found in any of the local blacksmith shops. Quoits were made from various materials which could be joined to make them completely circular and open in the center. Rope, wire, wood, etc. could be used. Both games required accuracy in landing the toss on or near driven pegs.²

Jumping

In these events, skill at leaping was required. Jumping at a mark was a standing or running broad jump from a stationary or running position to determine who could land nearest a predetermined target. Vaulting was jumping with the aid of a pole for distance.³

Throwing

Many recreation activities included throwing. Rocks were plentiful and frequently hurled for distance or skipped on the water. Competition in throwing axes and knives was common while the musclemen heaved boulders and logs.⁴

Wood Chopping

Wood cutting was normally a mundane task because it was a necessity

¹Interview with T. Edgar Lyon, Nauvoo, Illinois, June 13, 1970.
Smith, History of the Church, Vol. V, p. 302.

G. D. Watt, ed., Journal of Discourses, Vol. II (wnd prpinting; Liverpool, England: F. D. Richards, 1885), p. 164.

²Halford, "Nauvoo--the City Beautiful," p. 139.

Pardoe, Lorin Farr, p. 32.

³Berrett, The Restored Church, p. 160.

⁴James M. Sharpe Journal, February 14, 1844, MSS, Southern Illinois University, Kimball Collection.

Beardsley, Joseph Smith and His Mormon Empire, p. 259.

for cooking and eating. It was customary for men to organize groups in order to make cutting, hauling, and stacking easier. Sometimes in an effort to add diversion to the labor, contests were held. On February 20, 1844 a White Oak measuring five feet four inches in diameter was cut at a record pace for four and one half minutes by Hyrum Dayton and John Tidwell.¹

Bowling

Ninepins and Tenpins were the prevalent forms of bowling. The wooden pins were nine inches high and arranged ten inches apart. They were placed in a square or triangle depending on the number. The foul line was twenty to forty feet away. The bowler used a round ball to roll at the pins. Wood was the popular material for the balls. Each bowler was allowed three rolls per frame. Most alleys were located on smooth areas outside. The alleys in Nauvoo were regulated by the City Council.²

Billiards

Earlier mention was made and references given suggesting that billiards were played in the city. While this may be true, there is little evidence to substantiate where they were located or who used them. There is mention that they were regulated by the City Council as Pin Alleys. The Church would naturally look upon billiards as suspicious because of its traditional dingy back room setting and associated gambling connotation.³

Skating and Sliding

Snow packed hills and frozen ponds and streams afforded suitable areas for ice-skating or ice-sliding. The few who were fortunate enough to have

¹Smith, History of the Church, Vol. V, p. 282.

²Partridge, Death of a Mormon Dictator, p. 596.
Times and Seasons, January 15, 1841.

³Halford, "Nauvoo--the City Beautiful," p. 275.
Wasp, February 8, 1843.

Times and Seasons, January 15, 1841.

skates used them while the majority were content to glide on shoe leather.¹

Games

With so many backgrounds comprising Nauvoo's inhabitants, there must have been numerous games played. Again, sparse information exists as to description although some specific names were enumerated.

Teen and adult Games

Kissing Games

These games were especially popular with the teen set. During harvest time, if a boy could catch a girl with a red kernel of corn he could kiss her. If it was a black kernel, she received a spanking. Other forms of kissing games continued to be played through the winter.²

Fox and Geese

There were two different games called Fox and Geese. One was similar to checkers with a board and movable pieces while the other was a tag game where the Fox tried to capture the Geese.³

Grab

This was a game often played by the young people at their parties. Cards were alternately placed on a table and when cards of equal value appeared the person to grab them first was able to add them to his hand.⁴

Miller

The Miller was a play story acted out by pantomime. The story involves a miller, wheat grinding, and bread baking.⁵

¹Smith, History of the Church, Vol. V, p. 265

²Haven, "A Girl's Letters from Nauvoo," p. 626.

Riegel, Young America, p. 339.

³Haven, "A Girl's Letters from Nauvoo," p. 626.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid.

Cards

Regular card playing was regarded as a form of gambling, especially in a religious community as Nauvoo. Undoubtedly, people did play cards but such activity was looked on with distaste. Whist was more openly accepted because it was thought more scientific than other card games.¹

Rhymes

Enigmas and Conundrums pitted the witty and ingenuous minds in merry rhymes and couplets. Enigmas were perplexing riddles and conundrums were riddles which were answered with a pun.²

Backgammon, Dominoes, and Checkers

These were all played in Nauvoo and have changed little in rule and content from the games played today.

Children's Games

The young folks of Nauvoo also had a gay time in their energetic playing. Irene Hascall said that the young scholars were even allowed one day per week for play activities.³ On June 5, 1844 it was proposed in The Nauvoo Neighbor that residents coat the trunks of their trees with tar to prevent the young "urchins" from climbing them. Another favorite activity for the children was to dig in the sandy banks of the Mississippi. This was discouraged by most parents, however, because the soft banks would often cave in. Once, two young boys were killed in such an accident.⁴

Gertrude R. Lobrot, a guide for Nauvoo Restoration Incorporated, has recently found evidence to suggest that versions of Simon Says, Wink,

¹Ibid., p. 148.

²Benjamin F. Johnson, My Life's Review (Independence, Missouri: Zions Printing & Publishing Co., 1947), p. 75.

³Nauvoo Neighbor, February 21, 1844.

⁴Hascall, original letters, July 26, 1845.

⁵Nauvoo Neighbor, June 11, 1845.

Lemonade, Anti-I-Over, and Tippy were played. In addition, there were the usual games of Leapfrog, Follow the Leader, Jackstraws, Blind Man's Bluff, Battledore, etc.¹

Youngsters had a sundry selection of toys which they played with. There were little wagons, rag dolls, and spinning tops. marbles were very common since they were baked along with the bricks in the Nauvoo Brick factories.

Conclusions

It was clear that social recreation in Nauvoo was popular and widespread from small group activities to community wide celebrations. Religious and community leaders both participated in the sanctioned such activity.

Since the Mormon people were persecuted and eventually driven from nauvoo, social recreation also played a therapeutic role in providing release and escape from the stresses and uncertainties of daily life.

¹Interview with Gertrude R. Lobrot, Nauvoo, Illinois, March 21, 1970.

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SNAKES HEAL PEOPLE: AN APPLICATION OF SYSTEMATIC DESENSITIZATION

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ABSTRACT: This paper illustrates the concept of applying principles of traditional treatment theories in a therapeutic recreation setting. The "Snakes Heal People" presentation is a one to two hour hands on experience that addresses fears and other related issues.

INTRODUCTION

In the field of Therapeutic Recreation, we are continually faced with opportunities to develop new applications of recreation and leisure in order to better serve the populations we work with. By adapting principles of accepted treatment models to concepts of recreation and leisure, therapeutic recreators have given birth to a wide variety of experiential interventions that have proven to be very successful in health care services.

This paper illustrates one very simple example of such a program. The "Snakes Heal People" program is a one to two hour entertaining and educational presentation that has adapted some basic principles from two behavioral therapy models and has become a successful intervention dealing with fears and other related issues. For the purposes of this paper we will first review concepts of fear and phobias in general, specific fears of snakes, treatment for those fears, and finally more details about the "Snakes Heal People" presentation.

FEARS AND PHOBIAS

Considered one of the four primary emotions, along with sadness, joy, and anger, fear is defined as "the emotion of avoidance of a consciously recognized, usually external, eminent danger" (Ludwig, 1986, Corsini, 1987). It is often identified by the state of arousal that results when an individual recognizes a lack of power or capability to handle some threatening situation.

A phobia is similar but is an extreme or irrational fear, an intense avoidance of specific animate or inanimate objects or situations, such as fear of public speaking situations or fear of snakes, (Corsini, 1987). The Oxford Textbook of Psychiatry states that:

"A phobia is a persistent irrational fear of and wish to avoid a specific object, activity, or situation. The fear is irrational in the sense that it is out of proportion to the real danger and is recognized as such by the person experiencing it. The person finds it difficult to control his fear and often tries to avoid the feared objects or situations if possible. The object that provokes the fear may be a living creature, such as a dog, spider, snake, or a natural phenomenon such as darkness, or thunder. Phobics feel anxious not only in the presence of the objects or situations, but also when thinking about them (anticipatory anxiety)" (Gelder, 1989).

Isolated phobic symptoms are common among normal people and have been described since the earliest medical writings (Lewis, 1976). In the past, Greek names were given to each phobia, but there is nothing to be gained by this practice (Gelder et al., 1989). One medical dictionary lists 275 types of phobia, but the DSM-III R lists only three; agoraphobia, social phobia, and simple phobia (APA, 1987).

There is no single universal explanation to the cause of fears and phobias. But, several learning or conditioning theories are generally accepted. John Watson (1920), showed how specific fears could be learned in humans through classical conditioning. An infant named Albert, was known to be afraid of loud noises, but not of white rats. Watson gave "little Albert" a white rat, and when Albert reached out to touch it a hammer was hit against a steel bar right behind his head. After seeing the rat and hearing the loud noise seven times, Albert would burst into tears at the mere sight of the rat. Five days later Albert had generalized this condition or learned response, and was afraid of a white rabbit, a white dog, and a white fur coat.

It is generally agreed that some phobias may have direct events preceding their onset and others may not. For example, a person caught in a terrible hotel fire may develop a case of pyrophobia (fear of fire), but of the hundreds of people trapped in the hotel at the same time, the majority will not become phobic. The terrifying event then is not in itself sufficient to account for the phobia (Corsini, 1987).

Increasingly more studies have been done supporting the theory that most phobias are not learned according to classical conditioning principles, as shown above, but that they are learned vicariously through observational learning. Albert Bandura (1969), suggests that phobias are learned (at least in part), by direct exposure to the anxieties and irrational fears of another, especially one to whom we feel connected (Corsini, 1987). Thus, Bandura and others (Marks, 1969, 1977; Rachman, 1978), have agreed that "simply observing someone behave fearfully in the presence of a neutral stimulus may often be sufficient for the observer to acquire an intense fear of that stimulus" (Mineka et. al., 1984).

FEAR OF SNAKES

The irrational fear of snakes is transmitted, unchangingly, across the generations (Marks, 1987). Studies report that 70% of the population has some fear of snakes and 16% have an extremely high level of snake fear (Kirpatrick, 1989). Because of the abnormally high occurrence of snake fear, it is often used as a model neurosis for evaluating behavioral treatments for phobias (Eccles et. al., 1988; Leone, 1983; Sartory, 1986). Yet, little is known about the origin of snake fear itself, until Edward J. Murray's study "The Origins of Fear of Snakes" in 1979. Murray elaborated on Rachmans findings (1978), and stated that "It is possible that fear of snakes develops on the basis of observational and instructional learning."

The results from this study offer very little support for the idea that fear of snakes is acquired on the basis of direct conditioning. In fact, most people report that they have had very little personal experience with snakes. The more experience people have with snakes, the less they fear them.

Actual experiences that would clearly qualify as conditioning, such as being bitten, are extremely rare. Therefore, conditioning does not seem to account for the acquisition of snake fear.

In contrast, the results suggest that fear may be acquired through a variety of observational and instructional experiences that communicate negative information about snakes. One such experience is observing a snake doing harm to another person or animal. Subjects also reported being influenced by the observation of fear in others. For example, one subject reported that as a child he became frightened of a harmless snake because the children he was with showed fear and jumped up on chairs at the sight of it. So, too, there appears to be some influence of the observation of parents'

fear of snakes, although the parents had few negative experiences with snakes themselves. Emotional modeling may be involved.

Finally, fear of snakes appears to be influenced by the negative information provided about them by parent, stories, and other sources of information. As one subject put it, "Basically my fear was ingrained by my parents and reinforced by TV and movies. They are always evil there".

In conclusion, the results of this study on the origin of snake fears are consistent with Rachman's (1978) critique of the conditioning model of fears and phobias. Observational and instructional rather than direct conditioning, appear important in the acquisition of fear of snakes (1979). Numerous other studies also confirm that fear of snakes is largely learned from the observation of others and their fear reactions and attitudes (Mineka, 1984).

TREATMENT OF SNAKE FEAR

Behavioral therapies are the essential therapeutic interventions for the treatment of snake fears and phobias (Maxmen, 1986). More specifically in-vivo, performance based methods such as flooding, modeling, and systematic desensitization are by far the most successful. For example, controlled studies for desensitization techniques reveal at least a 50 to 60% improvement rate, compared to a 20% improvement with traditional psychotherapies.

Flooding is a method which bombards the subject with the fear evoking stimulus until anxiety begins to diminish. For example, a person would be locked in a room filled with harmless snakes until his fears are overcome. Corsini states that "While flooding is considered a rapid method and effective, at least in the short term, it does expose the patient to high levels of anxiety, levels that some consider too high and possibly dangerous (1987).

Participant modeling is a comparatively new method which requires the patient to imitate behavior demonstrated by the therapist (Gelder et. al., 1989). For example, the therapist would go through steps of approaching and handling a snake, then the patient would be encouraged to do the same thing. This type of modeling adapts many principles of systematic desensitization and has been proven successful (Miner, 1984).

Systematic Desensitization is by far the "best known, most widely used, and most intensively researched methods" (Wolman, 1977) used in the treatment of snake fears. While the imagery or imaginal method of systematic desensitization is also very successful

in dealing with snake fears (McGlynn, 1970), we will deal specifically with the in-vivo method.

The in-vivo method of systematic desensitization exposes the patient to the real fear evoking stimuli: in small, progressive steps while the patient is also experiencing a relaxing or pleasurable stimulus. The classic example is the famous case that involved a three-year-old boy named Peter, who was terribly afraid of animals such as rabbits and rats. Mary Cover Jones paired or linked a fear-evoking rabbit with the pleasurable, relaxed response associated with eating. As the hungry child began eating his afternoon meal, she introduced a caged rabbit on the other side of the huge room. Peter hardly noticed it as he eagerly ate his crackers and milk. On succeeding days, the rabbit was gradually moved closer and closer. Within two months, Peter not only tolerated the rabbit in his lap, but stroked it with one hand while he ate with the other. Moreover, his fear of other furry objects disappeared as well (Jones, 1924).

Innumerable successful treatments of patients with abnormal extreme fears of snakes in a documented clinical setting, suggests that the same basic principles used in the in-vivo systematic desensitization method should also be successful in a less stressful therapeutic recreation setting. With this assumption I developed the "Snakes Heal People" presentation to assist clients in understanding and overcoming, or reducing the wide-spread irrational fear of snakes as well as other fears.

THE "SNAKES HEAL PEOPLE" PRESENTATION

The "Snakes Heal People" (SHP) program is based on the principles of in-vivo systematic desensitization. SHP assumes that normal people feel safe or relaxed in a group situation, especially when the group is learning, smiling, and laughing. The presenter therefore, must encourage the group to sit in a relatively small or close area. He must also extensively involve the group in the discussion and learning process, while making it a fun or entertaining experience as well.

With these guidelines the group begins to talk about snake fears and why they exist. Through entertaining examples and group discussion the fact that snake fears are vicariously learned and are quite irrational is discovered. Then a very small (5 to 10 inches) live snake is brought out of the presenters pocket. Modeling techniques are used as the group discusses basic principles of handling snakes. Eventually the small snake is handed to a volunteer and a slightly larger snake is presented to be discussed. The program continues in this manner presenting progressively

larger snakes, with progressively smaller intervals between them. Also by continually stimulating relaxation and enjoyment with amusing related stories, as more and more is learned about snakes and their harmlessness. Near the end of the 1 to 2 hour session, all the participants have at least touched, if not held and taken their picture with a snake ranging from 10 inches to 14 feet long.

The snakes are then collected and placed back into bags and the final discussion or processing begins. For the last 10-15 minutes the step-by-step process of desensitization that has taken place is discussed in detail with the group. A great reduction in snake fear is generally experienced during this short experiential presentation. That reduction in fear is discussed and generalized to other fears individuals may be experiencing in their lives. Often the successful experience of actually handling snakes and overcoming such a wide-spread common fear gives the client the confidence to address other issues they are currently facing.

SUMMARY

The "Snakes Heal People" presentation is a simple application of systematic desensitization and modeling principles in a therapeutic recreation setting which has experienced great success among many populations. Therefore it is recommended that therapeutic recreators continue to adapt basic principles of accepted treatment theories and apply them in a leisure/recreation setting. By following this trend it is hoped that many innovative TR programs will continue to be developed and applied throughout the health care profession.

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